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CLASSICS OF AMERICAN LIBRARIANSHIP

THE LIBRARY AND ITS CONTENTS

Classics of American Librarianship

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Classics of American Librarianship

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Library Science

REPRINTS OF PAPERS AND ADDRESSES

WITH NOTES BY
HARRIET PRICE SAWYER
Principal of the St. Louis Library School

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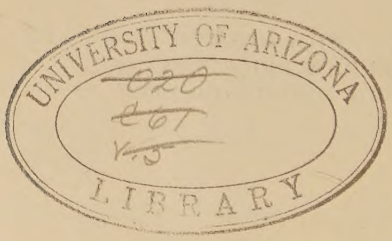

PREFACE

The word "contents," in the title of this compilation, must be interpreted to mean "essential contents"—in other words, books. The papers quoted cover some of the most important or interesting beginnings in the acquisition of books and in their preparation for use. What is done with them and how it is done; in other words, the direct service of the library to its public, is reserved for subsequent volumes.

ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK

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THE LIBRARY AND ITS CONTENTS

That which makes a library what it is, is of course its stock of books and other printed or manuscript material. This is common to all libraries, ancient and modern, scholarly and popular, general or special, out-of-date or up-to-the minute. The items of this stock required selection, acquisition and arrangement in the Babylonian collections of clay-tablets as well as in the public library of an American town. We are dealing here, therefore, with a very general subject, although the limitations of our series do not permit of our pursuing it further back than the founding of the American colonies. The papers reprinted here have been arranged under the subjects of Book Selection, Book Buying, Classification, Cataloging, with its divisions of accessioning, shelf-listing and the taking of inventory, and finally Book-binding. This follows the essential contents of the library up to the point where it is ready for public service. Its further use will be treated of in subsequent volumes of this series. Those who may feel, not unjustifiably, that part of a volume is too little to devote to such important subjects as those included here undoubtedly are, should bear in mind that it has been necessary to limit the entire series to ten volumes, and that it professes to cover only beginnings and is therefore the reverse of complete or exhaustive.

BOOK SELECTION—GENERAL

All books may be divided into two classes: books of the hour and books for all time. Yet it is not merely the bad book that does not last and the good one that does. There are good books for the hour and good books for all time; bad books for the hour and bad ones for all time.—*Ruskin.*

Roger Mifflin, the bookseller, says, I am not a dealer in merchandise but a specialist in adjusting the book to the human need. Between ourselves, there is no such thing, abstractly, as a "good" book. A book is "good" only when it meets some human hunger or refutes some human error. . . . The hunger for good books is more general and more insistent than you would dream. But it is still in a way subconscious. People need books, but they don't know they need them. Generally they are not aware that the books they need are in existence.—*Christopher Morley.*

The following articles on the selection of books are given in three groups. The first twelve relate to the general subject, or to phases of it not groupable with those that follow. The next three relate in particular to fiction, and the final seven are about the selection of books for children.

CHOICE OF BOOKS FOR POPULAR LIBRARIES

The first convention of librarians was held in Philadelphia in 1853, for the purpose of "conferring together upon the means of advancing prosperity and usefulness of public libraries." Very little emphasis was given to the subject of book selection if we are to judge from the printed proceedings. However, in an address on Popular Libraries, Rev. Samuel Osgood touched upon the subject as quoted below:

Samuel Osgood was born at Andover, Mass., in 1812, and became pastor of the Church of the Messiah, New York City, in 1849. Some years later he left the Unitarian communion and became an Episcopalian rector. At one time he was located in Providence and although living in New York at the time of the conference, he was appointed as delegate by the Providence Athenæum. He died in 1880.

What a great subject this matter of selecting and diffusing of books opens upon us! How much light would be thrown upon the inner life of the nation, if we could only trace the influence of good books as they make their noiseless progress throughout the land, spreading so much light, quickening so much energy, checking so much, and beguiling so much pain and sorrow! Honor to this movement that aims to help on the good cause. Too many bad books make their stealthy advances, that need to be tracked to their dens, even as the pestilence that walketh needs to be hunted to its hiding-place. Honor to every man who circulates two good books where only one circulated before. Remember Milton's noble words:—As good almost kill a man as kill a good book: who kills a man, kills a reasonable creature—God's image; but he who destroys a good book, kills reason itself, kills the image of God as it were in the eye.

At the end of the address, Mr. Osgood called attention in a resolution to the desirableness of a popular library manual which should include among other things the most desirable principle to be followed in the selection and purchase of books.

SELECTION OF BOOKS

In 1876, the United States Commissioner of Education published a report on Public Libraries, which contained not only statistics of these libraries but "the most important points in their history, administration and management," forming in short the long-wished-for manual on library science proposed by the Conference of 1853. To William F. Poole, at that time librarian of the Chicago Public Library, was intrusted the chapter on The Organization and Management of Libraries. The extract on book selection which follows presents sound principles, and in the main they are applicable to conditions half a century later. A sketch of Dr. Poole will be found in Volume III of this series.

After all the donations have been made, the bulk of the library must be carefully selected by the directors, or their library committee, and purchased with ready money. There was probably never a board of intelligent gentlemen appointed for such a service who did not suppose when they first came together, that the selection of books for the library would be one of their simplest and pleasantest duties. They soon find, however, that it is anything but an easy and harmonious task. The more varied and pronounced the individual qualifications of the several members, the more difficult the selection often becomes. If they start out with different theories of what the library shall be, agreement upon any selection of books is well-nigh impossible. Even without a conflict of theories, committees usually find, after they have made some progress in the work, that they have not that knowledge of books, editions, and prices, outside of their own line of reading, which will enable them to make a selection in the various departments of literature, science, and art, which will be even satisfactory to themselves; and they are very glad to turn their lists over to an expert for revision and completion.

There are, however, some general principles by the observance of which a committee can make an excellent selection of books for a library. They must first divest themselves of the idea that their own individual tastes must be represented in the selection, except so far as their tastes harmonize with those of the public at large. The wants of the great masses of the public must be kept constantly in view. One of the primary objects of a public library is to furnish reading for all classes in the community, and reading which shall be adapted to their various capacities. The masses of the public have very little of literary culture, and it is the purpose of a public library to develop it by creating in them a habit of reading. As a rule, people read books of a higher intellectual and moral standard than their own, and hence are benefited by reading. As their tastes improve they read better books. Books which are not adapted to their intellectual capacity they will not read. To meet, therefore, the varied wants of readers there must be on the shelves of the library books which persons of culture never read, although it is quite probable they did read such books in some stage of their mental development. Judged from a critical standpoint, such books are feeble, rudimentary, and perhaps sensational; but they are higher in the scale of literary merit than the tastes of the people who seek them; and, like primers and first-readers in the public schools, they fortunately lead to something better.

The wants of the young must also be considered. If a habit of reading is not acquired in youth, it is seldom developed in later life. The press of our day teems with entertaining and instructive books for the young, which are not simply stories, but books of travel, biography, natural history, and elementary science. Especial mention has been made of these classes of popular literature because they are foreign to the mature and cultivated tastes of committees, and hence are likely to be overlooked. They need not be reminded that their selections should include the standard histories of our own and foreign countries, biographies of eminent men, the best voyages and travels, the latest and most authoritative works on the arts and sciences, political economy, and social and political science, a good selection of poetry and the drama, etc. These are subjects which would suggest themselves to any committee. The wants of the more cultivated persons in the community should also be atten-

ded to. If the real wants of all classes are kept in view, the committee will not be likely to make an injudicious selection. The catalogues and finding lists of some of our larger libraries will be of great service to committees in making their lists.

In making the first lists for purchase, it is desirable, in case the funds at the disposal of the committee are limited, to select such works as will come into immediate use, and to postpone the purchase of expensive books which are rarely called for to a later period. The first demand in a public library is for its popular books; the demand for technical works and those of a higher and more scholarly grade comes later. There should be made, however, at the start, a collection of encyclopædias, dictionaries, gazetteers, and scientific compendiums, which should be accessible in the library as works of reference, and not to be taken out. The extent of this collection will depend on the means available for this purpose; but no library, however small, can dispense with such books of reference.

Many of the books desirable for a circulating library can be obtained in the best and cheapest form in collections; as Bohn's libraries, the Tauchnitz collection of British authors, Lardner's Cabinet Cyclopædia, Constable's Miscellany, Murray's Family Library, the Library of Entertaining Knowledge, Jardine's Naturalist's Library, the Traveler's Library, Knight's Weekly Volumes, Weale's Rudimentary Series, and several other similar collections. If any or all of these collections be ordered, care must be taken that the titles contained in them are stricken from the other lists; for, otherwise, these works will be duplicated. The Tauchnitz collection is very desirable, as it contains the works of nearly all the popular English authors, as Dickens, Thackeray, Mrs. Craik, George Eliot, Carlyle, Macaulay, Shakespeare, and many of the lighter authors. It is printed and bound at Leipzig in about 1,300 volumes, at a very small cost, and obviates the purchase of these writers in more expensive editions. Of this collection and of Bohn's libraries selections may be made. Weale's Series is also cheap and very desirable, as it gives practical information as to trades, processes in the arts, and elements of science. These volumes are always much sought for in libraries. The science of Lardner's Cyclopædia was good authority some years ago, but is not up to the standard of the present day. It is not, however, obsolete; and these volumes, especially those relating to history and biography, are still read with interest and profit.

Is it desirable to purchase duplicates of popular books? That depends on circumstances. In a small library, with limited means, it may be better policy to have a larger selection of good books than to duplicate those which are most in demand. In the larger libraries the practice of duplicating popular books is universal. They do not attempt to supply the first and temporary demand for a new book; but the permanent demand for a book of real merit they do endeavor to supply. Such a number of copies is purchased at first as will be likely to be in constant use after the temporary interest in the book has subsided. If attention and good judgment be given to this matter, a library need have but few useless duplicates.

A well selected and judiciously purchased circulating library, with such works of reference as are needed, will cost, on an average, $1.25 a volume. A library of 10,000 volumes will cost $12,500.* A large portion of these will be imported in substantial morocco binding, and the American books will be chiefly in muslin binding. A committee, therefore, knowing the amount of money it has to expend, may know the number of volumes it will buy. Such a collection will contain books which cost ten times as much a volume as the general average price.

* In 1924 this figure would be nearer $20,000.

SHOULD LIBRARIES BUY ONLY THE BEST BOOKS OR THE BEST BOOKS THAT PEOPLE WILL READ?

A paper read by Mr. Charles A. Cutter before the Western Massachusetts Library Club in 1901. The title indicates a great change in the tenor of the discussion of best books. Mr. Cutter asserts that the term "best" is only relative after all. A biographical sketch of Mr. Cutter appears in Volume IV of this series.

The question answers itself; there is no real opposition between its parts. Of course, we are to buy the best books, and if we have limited funds we can buy no others, or else we shall not get all of the best. But equally of course, this means the best books for the particular library in question, and that is the same as the best books that its people will use; for an unused book is not even good. Not the best books for the librarian, nor for the book committee, nor for the self-elected book committee outside of the library, nor for the shelves (to keep them warm by never leaving them); but the best books to satisfy the just demands of our clients for amusement and knowledge and mental stimulus and spiritual inspiration. The library should be a practical thing to be used, not an ideal to be admired.

Mr. Edmund Gosse in his "Century of English literature" in the New York Evening Post of Jan. 12, speaking of *lyric* poetry of the 19th century, well says: "The poetry is to be judged, not by the number of persons who have appreciated it—for those have often been few—but by the force, skill, and variety of the poets themselves. That is to say, time soon eliminates the commercial element of success, and one fit reader overweighs a million of the unfit. Mr. Percy B. Shelley and Miss Jane Porter, for instance, attempted to address the English public at the same moment. It is no exaggeration to say

that the lady possessed ten thousand admirers for every one that listened to the gentleman. The instance is not an unfair one, because the authoress of 'Thaddeus of Warsaw' was not one of the worst, but one of the best deciduous novelists of her time. Yet her romantic prose is forgotten, and Shelley's verse is as indestructible as diamonds."

"One fit reader," he says, "overweighs a million of unfit." Is it so? Yes, from the point of view of the literary critic and of the literary historian and of posterity, but not from the point of view of the librarian. The whole history of libraries in the past century may almost be condensed into one sentence: They *were* the libraries of the one fit reader; they *are* the libraries of the million unfit as well as the one fit. The librarian will buy the novels of the Miss Jane Porter of to-day for the ten thousand, and the poems of the Shelley of to-day—if he can find him—for the one. He will buy the "David Harums" and the "Richard Carvels" for the first class and, shall we say, provisionally, the Stephen Phillips, the Rostands, for the other.

When you have a perfect people you can afford to have only perfect books, if there are such things; perhaps there will be then. When you have a homogeneous public you can hope to have a stock of books exactly fitted to them all, and no book shall be unfitted to any one of them. But so long as there is a public of every diversity of mental capacity, previous education, habits of thought, taste, ideals, you must, if you are to give them satisfaction or do them any good, provide many books which will suit and benefit some and will do no good, perhaps in some cases may do harm, to others. It is inevitable. There is no escape from this fundamental difficulty. The poor in intellect, the poor in taste, the poor in association are always with us. The strong in intellect, the daring in thought, the flexible in spirit, the exquisite in taste are only sometimes with us. We must manage somehow to provide for them both.

I think many most excellent persons do not really enter into the state of mind of those who are at a stage of culture or mental ability or æsthetic taste which they have passed beyond. If they could, they would know that there are men of a certain rigidity of mind to whom a book which is two degrees above them is as much a sealed book as if written in Chinese. Sometimes it need not even be above a man to be lost to him. A book on his level, if it be a little aside from his ordinary range, is

as if it did not exist, is unreadable. A man came to our library repeatedly and asked for Mrs. Southworth's novels. We had only two or three, and when none of them was in he would go away without taking anything. The attendant tried to get him to borrow something a little better, but without success. Then she recommended some of the same sort, Mrs. Mary J. Holmes and the like; but he would have none of them. "Why don't you get some more of Mrs. Southworth's?" he burst out; "they're splendid!" Those novels were just suited to his capacity, "the best he would read," "the best" for him. And we shall give them to him. We are even getting more of them at his request. But I do not yet despair of introducing at least a little variety into his diet.

Everybody knows that in a reference library many more books have to be bought than are at any one time in process of consultation. So in a reading library, it is necessary to get many works which are good for only a portion of the readers. We are continually talking of "the public," as if there were one public, a homogeneous body with one set of likes and dislikes, similar associations, the same previous reading. We even complain that the progress of civilization is rendering everything detestably uniform, that there is no local color, no individuality. But let any one in an agricultural, manufacturing, mercantile, and college town stand for a day at the delivery desk, and he will find that there is quite as much diversity of demand as he can deal with.

Once upon a time at a concert the occupant of the next seat to me happened to be a young lady with whom I was slightly acquainted. A singer was singing with such a metallic voice, such faulty enunciation and absence of feeling that I was saying to myself all through, "This is certainly as bad as they make them." Pardon the slang; it shows to what a state of mind I was reduced. Finally when she ended some complicated vocalization with the usual shrill shriek, and I was about to express my opinion the young lady exclaimed with evident sincerity, "Wasn't that beautiful!" Since then I have been very careful not to assume that my dislike measures the appreciation or the enjoyment of the world.

For, after all, "best," like many others words, is relative. A year or two ago a certain librarian sent out circulars to a score of other librarians asking each to furnish a list of the

ten best books. I wrote back asking for definitions—Best in what? in style? in interest? in instructiveness? in suggestiveness? in power? Best for whom? for the ignorant? for children? for college graduates? for the retired scholar? for the people in general? He replied, Best for you. Evidently it will not do for any book-selector to take that definition of "best" as his absolute guide. Not to be disobliging I sent him a list of the ten (or twenty) books that, so far as I could tell, had most influenced me. I wasn't quite prepared to call them the best books. One of them was, I think, Carlyle's "Sartor resartus," that had happened to fall into my hands just at the psychological moment, just when I was ready for it. It opened my eyes to a whole new world of thought and expression. I believe I owe a great deal to it. And yet I can imagine its being taken up by some one not prepared for it to whom it would say absolutely nothing, and by some one else who had passed by its stage to whom it would seem empty and pretentious. Probably something like this might be said of every one of the books on my list and on all the other lists of best books, at least in respect to many readers not being ready for them.

A high school teacher said lately, "You would be surprised to see how low the capacity of many of the boys is. Give them Sir Walter Scott, they cannot read him. They do not know what he is talking about." We librarians have to deal with whole bodies of readers of that quality. We must provide them with something which they can read and understand.

Select your library, then, as Shakespeare wrote his plays, the highest poetry, the deepest tragedy side by side with the comic and the vulgar. Do not make the regularity, balance of parts, dignity of expression, of the French classic drama your model or you will have only a *succès d'estime*. Imitate a Gothic cathedral. Do not fancy that libraries can be Grecian temples, made by rule, all just alike wherever they are, perfect in form, suited to one limited use. To sum up, what I have been trying to show is the great diversity in very many respects of those who come to the library, the consequent diversity of the best each can read, the necessity of providing many different kinds, qualities, degrees of good books, the impossibility of limiting one's choice to any one degree of good, lest it should be too high for some and too low for others.

This doctrine is discouraging. It is of a piece with the proverb that there is no royal road to learning. There is no royal

road to the selection of a library. There are no "best books." "Each in its place is best." There are no books which can truly be called "the only good books." There are very many desirable books of very varying degrees of literary—and other—merit, which must be provided to suit, I do not say the tastes, but the needs of the public; and the library so made is not going to be at all a library of standard books or an ideal library or, in the judgment of most people, a well-selected library. But it may nevertheless be a very useful and a very educational library.

It is always possible, given time and patience enough, to drive out evil by good, the lower by the higher. It is not so much exclusion of the inferior as inclusion of the attractive superior that should be our aim. The question proposed to us was skilfully worded, "the best that people will read," not "the best that they *do* read." People improve. They are not always averse to, in fact they often desire—the young usually desire—to read what is a little above them, if it is not too unintelligible, and if it is not forced upon them. The mere presence of the books-just-beyond-them in the library is sure to lead some of them sometimes to attempt these and so to move up to a little higher plane. And the library is sure to have books that are just a little better than any of its readers if it proceeds on the principle of getting what suits each grade, which, of course, will be a little above those that suit each lower grade.

The natural inclination to better one's self must be gently and unobtrusively assisted. Here, as in all *pastoral* work, success comes from sympathy. He can best minister to another's wants who can put himself into another's place, enter into his mind, and so feel those wants himself. As the librarian will do injustice to the scholar unless he has himself felt the sacred thirst for knowledge; as he will not, indeed, cannot supply the demand for the beautiful unless he has himself felt the artistic thrill, so he will fail in properly providing for many of his people unless he remembers the gradual opening of his own mind or is able by imagination to recreate his forgotten state of ignorance and inability.

SIFTING AS A LIBRARY POLICY

The drastic method described in this report of restricting the size of the collection of books in a small library seems to have been evolved by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, who followed up this proposal by a similar one in the report of the Lincoln, Mass. Public Library in 1903, reprinted in The *Library Journal* for July 1904. Each report produced wide discussion at subsequent conferences and in the columns of the Journal. Mr. Adams served as trustee of the Public Library at Quincy, Mass. for many years. For biographical data, consult Volume I of this series.

In the recent (22d) report of the trustees of the Thomas Crane Public Library, Quincy, Mass., the advantages to be gained by restricting the book capacity of small or middle-sized public libraries are considered. In all libraries the tendency is toward a vast accumulation of matter, the bulk of which renders the complete up-to-date cataloguing of the library impracticable, and thus seriously impairs its usefulness. A year ago this condition confronted the trustees of the Quincy Library. They have dealt with it in a summary way, and in so doing have made a new departure in library methods. Their policy is thus outlined:

"The library may be likened to a reservoir, into which streams of considerable volume are always pouring, and from which there is no outlet. Under this process there is necessarily a large accumulation of what may not inaptly be described as literary sediment—that is, books either of ephemeral interest, or small original value, or not adapted to the use of a public library like that of Quincy. These are placed upon the shelves and though very rarely, if ever, called for, remain there, taking up room needed for works of a better class or in more immediate demand. This condition of affairs, common to nearly all libraries may go on through a number of years; but it is

obvious that the time will come, soon or late, when a measure of relief must be applied.

"At the beginning of the year the trustees found themselves confronted with this situation. The shelves were as yet not seriously overcrowded, but the collection already contained about 19,000 volumes, and there were no accommodations for over 20,000, unless extensive changes were made. It therefore became necessary to decide on the policy to be pursued in respect to the acquisition of books and future growth of the library.

"As the result of an experience now stretching over more than 20 years and of careful observation of the use made of the library, the trustees concluded that it ought to be regarded, and in future developed, as a collection of books for popular reference, consultation, and reading, and not as a collection designed for the use of scholars or specialists. It is both futile and unwise for a city like Quincy, in the immediate vicinity of Boston, to attempt to have a large general library. Such a library must necessarily contain at least 40,000 or 50,000 volumes, and should, to be at all complete, contain 100,000. There are no less than three collections of this character in Boston or its immediate vicinity—the Boston Public Library, the Harvard College Library and the Boston Athenaeum—while there are a number of special libraries—medical, legal, historical, scientific, and religious—which are designed to have as complete collections as possible of works relating to their several departments. Even should any books of special rarity or value find their way into a library situated as the Quincy Public Library is, it would be far better that the trustees should get such books by exchange or otherwise into the libraries of Boston or some special library, than that they should retain them upon their own shelves. Books are made to use, not to hoard away or to conceal. They are of no earthly value except in so far as they are used; and in order that they may be used they must be accessible. A rare, costly, or purely professional book, not of an elementary character, is merely hid away upon the shelves of a local library like that of Quincy. No student or general investigator, even if living in the city, would ever look for them there. He would look for them at one of the libraries above referred to; and to those libraries students and investigators can always obtain access. Accordingly, the proper place

for such books is in those libraries, and not in the local and incomplete collections.

"The public library of a city like Quincy should, on the other hand, be made as complete and as available as possible for general, popular use, whether by old or young. It should contain all the standard works in the language, and a good assortment of practical treatises and of the best works of reference. Above all, whatever it has should be made easily accessible to persons of average intelligence, and every facility should be afforded for its use. It should in a word be a peoples working and educational institution.

"If this end is kept in view, it would follow that a sufficient library could be brought together within the limit of 10,000 or, at the outside, of 15,000 volumes; but in order to keep the library within those limits a judicious and continual process of winnowing is necessary; all duplicates and books of ephemeral interest, nearly all books relating to specialties, and most rare books being from time to time removed from the shelves, and either destroyed or sent elsewhere.

"Acting on this principle, the trustees during the past year have removed from the shelves of the library 1070 duplicate volumes and 1075 other volumes, principally public documents —in all about a tenth part of the collection. The public documents thus removed afford a good illustration of the principle upon which the trustees have acted. During the whole 20 years the library has been in use it may fairly be questioned whether 100 of these volumes have ever been consulted, or by as many as 10 persons. Any one wishing to consult such works would naturally look for them in Boston at the library in the State House. Of the equal number of duplicates, or books not considered useful, also cleared from the shelves, a portion were sent to other libraries; such as were there desired were given to the high school as the nucleus of an historical school library; the rest were sold to dealers in old books for what could be got for them.

"But in the case of a popular reading and working collection, it is quite as important that the books in it should be readily accessible as that they should be intelligently selected. A mass of unarranged, uncatalogued volumes is, so far as popular use goes, little better than so much rubbish; and the size of the library affects very directly the practicability of keeping

it accessible to the public. It is a difficult but not insuperable task to catalogue, and keep catalogued, for general public use 10,000 or even 15,000 volumes; it is practically impossible to catalogue for general public use 100,000 volumes, and then afterwards to keep them and their accretions so catalogued. Both labor and expense prevent it. As there are now 16,800 volumes on the shelves, these should undergo a further reduction of 1800, in order to bring the number within the limit (15,000) of reasonable catalogue work. If that limit is exceeded, the excess above 15,000 volumes, composed of books rarely called for, should be omitted from the printed catalogue and rendered accessible in some other way. Should this policy be strictly followed hereafter, the collection will never become unwieldy, and can always be made to serve its true purpose as an available public library for exclusively popular use.

"No library can be made readily accessible to the mass of those people composing a community through a card catalogue. At best such a catalogue is inconvenient, and to consult it is almost an art in itself. A good and widely distributed printed catalogue alone makes a library accessible to the general public, old and young. Ten thousand volumes made accessible in this way are, as a town or city library, more practically useful than a hundred thousand buried under their own mass. In the case of this library the difficulty is financial. The publication of a catalogue involves serious labor and large expense. It will probably cost, including the labor of preparation, between $2,000 and $3,000. The trustees are not disposed to call upon the city for a special appropriation of this sum; but it is their design to enter upon a definite policy of accumulation. They have already, through fines, sales of material, and other sources, accumulated a small fund, with which to defray the cost of a catalogue. They propose to hasten the accumulation of this fund so that it shall suffice to meet the cost of printing a wholly new catalogue in the year 1895, when the present catalogue will have been in use twenty years. The collection will by that time have undergone such changes as to be almost a different library. The provision thus made will insure the possession of a fund amply sufficient for the publication in 1895 of a wholly new catalogue of the library as it shall then exist and this catalogue, when published, having been paid out of the savings accumulated by reduced purchases of books, should be sold, irre-

spective of cost, at a price so low as to put it within the easy reach of any one wishing to use the library.

"In this matter, as in the matter of the books composing the collection, it cannot too clearly be borne in mind that catalogues are printed for use; and that to be used they must be generally distributed. Experience has also shown that very few families in any community care to incur the expense of buying a high-priced catalogue. They are unwilling to pay for it anything approaching its cost, which, in the case of a library of 10,000 volumes, will be in the neighborhood of $2.50 a copy, if an edition of 1000 copies is printed. Those who make the largest use of our town public libraries—people who do not own books and are unable to buy them—can ill afford such an expense; yet a collection for popular use of 10,000 volumes, with a catalogue of them in every other house, will be of infinitely greater public and educational service than four times that number of volumes with catalogues only on the library tables.

"A good catalogue periodically revised and re-published, and generally distributed at a nominal price, is thus, as an accessory to a library, wisely secured through a reduction in the number of volumes purchased, which without it are to a large extent inaccessible and practically worthless."

SELECTION AND REJECTION OF BOOKS

In this paper, read before the American Library Institute in 1908, John Cotton Dana takes as his thesis, "Selection Is Rejection," but says that no general rules can be laid down for rejection. On the whole, he sympathizes with the attitude of the preceding writer, but says that each case in each library must be separately considered. He thinks that the secret of book selection is to select few titles, carefully chosen for the community's needs, and then duplicate them freely. A biographical sketch of Mr. Dana appeared in Volume I of this series.

A proper function of great research libraries is to preserve and hold ready for use either all the printed things they can gather and make available, or all they can gather within the fields they mark out for themselves. With these libraries our question does not, as yet, concern itself; though at the present rate of increase in printing the time will soon come when no library can persist in the attempt to be the *omnium-gatherum*, and storehouse libraries must become storehouses only within chosen fields.

All libraries that are not storehouses find, as our question suggests, that one of their pressing duties is that of selection; and to select is to reject also. The limits set by income, the limits set by the demands of those entitled to use its books, the limits set by the scope of the library as defined by those who found it or those who maintain it, these compel the librarian of every library in the country, whether large or small, to select from all books new and old a mere handful for purchase.

In selecting A in preference to a possible B, the librarian deprives his constituency of that use of B which they might have enjoyed had he not selected A. For A he gives the money it costs, also the money required to catalog it, place it on the shelves, handle it, dust it, rebind it, shift it from shelf to shelf

as the library grows and move it, perhaps a score of times daily, as the use of books which stand near it may demand. He chose to put money and thought upon A and not upon B, because he believed A would earn its cost and keep for the library's readers, while B would not. The choice may not have been a wise one; but it was one that had to be made. No one thinks of asking if it is wise to permit someone to select certain books, and reject all other books, for a library. No one says this is too great a responsibility for anyone to assume. The selection must be made, the librarian uses all the skill he has therein—and the work is done.

The same question that confronts the librarian in selecting for purchase, confronts him also in selection for retention. He keeps C on the shelves, he disposes forever of D, because he finds that the room D occupies, the money it takes to keep it clean, well bound and in proper place on the shelf, is more than the value of D to the persons who use the library. This is as plainly a question of library administration as is the question of selection for purchase.

What, if any, rules can be laid down for rejection? I believe, none. Each case in each library must be separately considered.

Always it must be kept in mind that use alone does not justify the expense of retaining a book. The use must be sufficient to warrant the expense. Most librarians are a trifle overawed by a book, and still more overawed by a book which is in the library, and still more by a book in the library which a man once wished to see. He may have been a mere idler, he may have wished to see it for a perfectly useless inquiry, he may have been the only one to ask for it in three years; but that it is a book in the library and a man asked for it, these often justify in our minds its retention after they should not. In every case the question is: As to this book, will the efficiency of this library be augmented by its expensive presence or its labor-saving absence?

The increase in the use made of books in libraries, an increase which is very rapid, promises to be more rapid still, and causes administrative expenses to rise at a very disturbing rate—this increase of use with greater increase of cost compels careful consideration of all possible methods, of saving labor. The wise selection of books is certainly one of the most effective

of labor-saving methods. Buying ten copies of the best book on a subject for a given library's constituency, saves money over buying 10 different books on the same subject; it saves in selecting, ordering, cataloging, classifying, replacing, finding on the shelf because always in, and in satisfying inquirers because the staff knows the one book, its scope, contents, value and what it can do for a given inquirer.

This is the secret of the art of selecting: few titles, carefully chosen for the community's needs, and freely duplicated. The success the Newark library has had with its list of novels restricted to a thousand titles is an illustration I may venture to allude to. It seems to have added to the library's efficiency and to have saved labor at the same time.

The rejection of books is another plan which makes for economy. The out-of-date book, or the book of recent date which is useful to the community only on very rare occasions, must be made to give an account of itself. Many such books can give good reasons for their presence on the library's shelves, of course. But the rising cost of administration compels, as I have said, a careful examination of everything which makes against efficiency, and lack of use is the very denial of efficiency in a book as well as in a library.

A book that for any reason is no longer a good working tool in the library in which it finds itself surely adds to the cost of that library's maintenance. One such book in a large library is of small importance, a few thousand to a large degree bind the hands, so to speak, of the really efficient books with which they stand, and make many of the hours of work of the assistants simply hours of wasted labor.

Libraries must save time at every point to justify the growing payrolls. Well-selected books save time by their presence; inefficient books save time by their absence.

IMPROPER BOOKS: METHODS EMPLOYED TO DISCOVER AND EXCLUDE THEM

At the Denver Conference of the A.L.A., in 1895, a round table was planned to cover the subject of book selection, with emphasis on precautions exercised to avoid the selection of undesirable books and the treatment of those found objectionable after purchase. The following paper, presented by Mrs. Elmendorf, then Miss Theresa H. West, librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library, naturally follows Mr. Dana's paper on the rejection of books. A brief biography of Mrs. Elmendorf will be found in Volume III of this series.

The question of the definition of proper, or improper books, must necessarily be left to the decision of the management of the individual institution. Books eminently proper for the library of a great university, might be essentially improper in a library for the education of the general mass of people.

The underlying principle of my own selection of books, for a library which is essentially for the people, is that books that speak truth concerning normal, wholesome conditions may be safely bought, however plain-spoken. While on the other hand, books which treat of morbid, diseased conditions of the individual man, or of society at large, are intended for the student of special subjects. Such are bought only after due consideration of the just relation of the comparative rights of the students and general readers.

The thought which our president's question suggested to my mind was that he intended to bring out the practical method which governed the course of selection. In our case at Milwaukee the first sieve by which we sift our purchases is the general reputation of the publishing houses.

There are a number of houses which, in a long experience of book buying, we have come to trust. A book which is vouched for by one of them we take almost as a matter of

course. Sometimes they betray us, it is true, but not often. A publishing house deliberately makes its choice of the clientage to which it chooses to appeal and, for the sake of its own reputation which is a large part of its stock in trade, it will not lightly depart with its traditions.

Unless in the subject or title there is some indication of the need for care, we take with a comparative feeling of safety all the books which fall into our lines from certain houses. (I would gladly mention names, but it seems hardly proper to do so in this place.) Equally so there are other houses whose reputation is such that we exclude their books unless they prove worthy. Then it is a case of "Can good come out of Nazareth?"

The reputation of the authors also does, of course, weigh with us, but it is a much more difficult test to apply.

Books are sent by our agent on approval; and a new book especially a novel, by a new publishing house and by a new author, is subjected to personal examination by the librarian or one of the heads of the departments.

Books which one would rather not have bought do creep into every library. So far, we have in such cases, simply placed a mark in such books which is known only to the attendants, and such books are never offered to people. This is a step made necessary by the practice, common in this library of keeping upon the counter in the delivery department a selection of novels from which any one may choose.

Tabooed books are given to those only who ask definitely for them, and are accompanied by an explanation of their character. Such books are not given out to children or young people at all, unless upon written request of parent or guardian. All this taboo question, however, is treated quietly, with as little advertisement as possible.

The constant effort is to decrease the possible use of weak or immoral books by increasing the use of those known to be wholesome, interesting, and sound. In short, when we find "a good thing we push it along."

FITTING THE BOOK TO THE COMMUNITY

The following principles of selection, emphasized by Mrs. Mary Salome Cutler Fairchild at a library institute held at Utica, N. Y., in 1903, still remain unchanged. As she says in an address on the same subject delivered in 1895, the problem of the selection of books is the most difficult one the small library has to face. Mrs. Fairchild's broad study of the subject is reflected in the following terse outline. Biographical material concerning Mrs. Fairchild appeared in Volume II of this series.

The function of the library as an institution of society is the development and enrichment of human life in the entire community by bringing to all the people the books that belong to them.

Select books which tend toward development and enrichment of life. In deciding whether to buy a given book for a given library ask the question: Is there anything in this book to have a good effect on the life of this community? Is there anything in this book of service and pleasure to any man, woman, or child in this community?

Let the basis be positive, not negative. Select books which will be of service to somebody. Do not exclude these books because somebody thinks they may do harm.

Select books on subjects in which individuals and groups in the community have an interest.

Provide for the entire constituency, not simply for those using the library.

See to it that no race, nationality, profession, trade, religion, faith, or school of thought or local customs represented in the community is overlooked.

Provide books which will be used by only a few people if they are likely, by use of the books, to do original work of service to society.

Select some books of permanent value not immediately interesting to readers.

Have a good regard for proportion and balance, the most difficult task in book selection.

Avoid a literary basis.

See to it that the selection does not represent the personal equation or fads of the librarian or book committee.

Banish the idea of completeness except for an encyclopedic library or for a special collection. For example, all books of an author or all of a series.

PRINCIPALS OF BOOK SELECTION

The libraries were formerly, said Mr. Cutter, the libraries of the one fit reader; they now are the libraries of the million unfit as well as the one fit. Miss Corinne Bacon, then an instructor in the Albany Library School, contributed to *New York Libraries* (October, 1907) an article on this new reading public and on the selection of books which may contribute to its education, inspiration and amusement.

Corinne Bacon was educated at Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn. She received her library training at the New York State Library School, 1901 to 1903, and remained with the school as instructor until 1910. From Albany, she went to the Newark Public Library, as cataloger, and from 1912 to 1914, she held the position of librarian of Drexel Institute Library, and at the same time was director of the Drexel Institute Library School. From September 1914 to 1924, she was editor the Standard Catalog series issued by The H. W. Wilson Co., and since 1916 instructor in book selection in the New York Public Library School.

"Of the making of many books there is no end." What would Solomon say could he but open his eyes upon our modern literary output? Do you know how many books were published last year in England and America? 8603 in England, 7139 in the United States. In addition to these, think of the older books of which the librarian is supposed to have some knowledge. How shall we thread our way through this maze? What shall be our guiding principles in selecting books for our libraries? As the rules to be followed are necessarily conditioned by the end or ends we have set before us and the material upon which we must work, it seems natural to ask ourselves at the outset (1) *What should be the aim of the public library?* (2)

Who form its constituency? Does the reading public of today differ widely from the reading public of 50 years ago?

(1) What should be the aim of the public library? It should furnish (*a*) information, (*b*) inspiration, (*c*) amusement; or, in other words, it must provide the literature of knowledge, the literature of power and the literature that is simply recreative.

The library has unquestioningly furnished informational literature of a sort, in the past. It has expected to furnish the historian or the student of economics with material. Today it is being called upon even more frequently to provide not only for the professional man and the scholar, but for the skilled workman who is the backbone of our material prosperity. This man is beginning to ask us for the book tools of his trade. Shall our answer be yes or no?

The inspirational function of the library is I think, generally acknowledged. No one questions its right to supply what De Quincey called the "literature of power"—great novels, essays, poems, dramas—the books which appeal to us on the esthetic and the emotional sides, whose aim is not instruction, but quickening.

The battle still rages hotly in some quarters as to whether *amusement* is a legitimate function of the public library. But why not? We are taxed for parks and municipal bands. Why should one pay taxes to hear a Sousa march and wince at paying taxes to circulate the *Colonel's opera cloak* or *The Siamese cat?* But the parks, says some one, make for health. So does a good laugh. It may save one from nervous prostration. A sense of humor has tided some folks over situations which were a severe strain upon their religion! Then too, we all need to get outside of ourselves at times—times when we are too tired for great emotions—and the book frigate that bears us away from all that frets us, helps to keep us sane and well. Why is not preserving our physical and moral balance just as legitimate a function of the library as increasing our knowledge?

But we are getting too far away from the second point raised as conditioning the principles which should guide us in the selection of books: Who form our constituency? The reading public of today differs vastly from that of 50 years ago. Books used to be written largely for scholars or for people of some literary training or taste. Authors and librarians have a

new public today—a large body of readers who know how to read and know but little else. A book is to them little more than their daily paper in a form more convenient to handle. Of literary construction and style, they know nothing. For the great names in literature, they care nothing. Yet many of them are gorging themselves with printed stuff as industriously as the silkworm stuffs itself with mulberry leaves. Some of them patronize our libraries—more do not. What shall we do with these people? If our libraries are to be educational forces in the community, we have them to reckon with. The old library was for the scholar, the new library is for a far wider public. "They *were*," says Mr. Cutter, "the libraries of the one fit reader; they *are* the libraries of the million unfit as well as the one fit." Whatever we do, let us not sink into a pessimistic attitude and say that no one cares for good literature and that we are all going to the bow wows together. It does not necessarily follow that fewer people are reading Hawthorne or Thackeray or Tolstoi because thousands are clamoring for *Mr Barnes of New York* or *The Clansman* or *Wormwood*. Readers of Plato have not suddenly taken to the *Police Gazette*. We have a *new* reading public, and one of our most serious problems today is to determine how far we can educate this public and how far we may cater to its taste in order to educate it.

Granting then that the library is for the instruction, inspiration and amusement of all the people, how shall we select our books in order to accomplish these ends?

(1) Study your community with care and try to provide something for all who use or may be induced to use the library. The librarian in the small town or village with a fairly stationary population, has an advantage here over the librarian in a large city with its shifting population. The town librarian can know her constituents better. She should get acquainted with the ministers, the superintendent of schools, the teachers, the editors and reporters, should join the local clubs, should, in short, seize every possible opening for getting into touch with the community.

(2) Do not think that because your library is tax-supported you must buy every book for which the taxpayers ask. Encourage people to make their wishes known. It is a good plan to have a book of wants in which they may enter requests for books. But you are no more bound to buy a book called for,

if you think it is a book the library should not own, than your local school board is bound to give a course in Chinese in the high school because the daughter of a certain taxpayer is going to China as a missionary and would like some preliminary knowledge of the language. The school board holds the reins over the course of study. They choose the road and do the driving, although the public pays for the team. So should the librarian and the trustees hold the reins in this matter of book selection.

A boy once made the following request of a large reference library which circulated a few books: "Having been a frequent visitor to this library I recommend Horatio Alger, Jr, because I find youths are in great want of them. Knowing that they will do the student good I remain,"

His request was not and should not have been granted.

In Mr C. A. Cutter's article: "Should libraries buy only the best books or the best books people will read?" [L. J. 1901, p. 70-72] he tells us: "The library should be a practical thing to be used, not an ideal to be admired. . . When you have a homogeneous public you can hope to have a stock of books exactly fitted to them all, and no book shall be unfitted to any one of them. But so long as there is a public of every diversity of mental capacity, previous education, habits of thought, taste, ideals, you must, if you are to give them satisfaction or do them any good, provide many books which will suit and benefit some and will do no good, perhaps in some cases may do harm, to others. It is inevitable."

(3) Do not refuse to buy a book because one or more people object to it. What no one objects to is probably valueless. A vital book, like a person of any vitality, is sure to antagonize some one.

(4) Know books. Important as is the knowledge of people, it is quite as necessary, in order to bring the right book and the right reader together, to know books. We have been laying needed emphasis in our library training schools upon technical processes. We ought to have our books methodically arranged; we ought to put them into the reader's hands with as little fuss and delay as possible. Yet the importance of all this pales before the vital necessity of knowing *what* it is that we are classifying so carefully and handing out so quickly. Therefore read, read, read. Skim some books, steep yourself in others

and scrape at least a bowing acquaintance with as many as possible. Some one has said that the librarian who reads is lost. The librarian who doesn't read isn't worth finding!

(5) Take advice from specialists in various lines, but do not always follow it. As a rule the very book the man in the street wants—the popular treatise—is the book the specialist condemns. It is hard for the scholar to get the point of view of the librarian who must cater to both the learned and the unlearned.

(6) Do not "build up a well-rounded collection." Get what your readers need and want, or can be made to want. Rules have been laid down as to what proportion of histories, scientific books, art books, novels, juveniles, etc. should be bought. These can only be suggestive. The proportion to be maintained between different classes of books will vary in each community.

(7) Do not buy an author's complete works if some of his books are worth your while to own and others are not. This is especially true in fiction. If a man has written very poor and very good novels, it is better to refuse to buy even one copy of the poor ones and to duplicate the good.

(8) Buy largely for the children. Notice that I do not say: Buy largely of juvenile books. There is too much predigested mental food for babes on the market today. Shun all but the best of it and give the children some of the great books of all times—something their minds can reach up to and which will develop their mental muscle. Your money will go further in buying for children than for adults, because they do not insist upon books hot from the press and you can therefore buy more of the books upon which you can get a large discount.

(9) Buy a few standard books, even if the demand for them is not great. Maybe you can popularize them, but in doing this, avoid the priggish or paternalistic attitude. Avoid standard histories in many volumes, "complete" sets of British poets, etc. Select your standard books as carefully as you do your friends. Don't get them because "no gentleman's library should be without them."

(10) Buy good editions of standard books. Even a very small library may own a few attractive editions of great authors, the make-up of which, as well as the contents, may be truly educative.

(11) Buy technical books if your community needs them and you can afford it. They are too expensive for the average very small library to buy, because they so quickly get out of date.

(12) If you have many foreigners in your town, buy some books for them in their own languages. Many of the older people will never learn to read English and the bond between parent and child is strengthened if the child, while learning English, does not forget his native tongue.

(13) Buy, or better, beg all books or pamphlets relating to your town or written by townspeople. Secure church and town reports, club programs, etc. Build up a little local history collection, no matter how small your library.

(14) Sometimes buy a book wanted by a single reader. Oftener borrow it for him from another library.

(15) Do not duplicate valuable books in other libraries in your town, if these are easily accessible to the public in general. The school library and the public library in a small place do not *both* need a set of the "Jesuit relations," if indeed either does.

(16) Do not buy many reference books if your library is not open hours enough for these books to be used in consultation at the library.

(17) Buy no book without asking yourself whether in buying it you are not depriving your library of the chance to purchase a better book that is in as great or greater demand.[1]

(18) Buy few, if any, books that the majority of your clients will consider ethically dubious. If you buy any, restrict their circulation so that boys and girls will not draw them out. It is easier for the small and poor than for the rich library to maintain a high ethical standard. It can always refuse to buy what is doubtful on the score of lack of funds.

(19) Do not look down upon fiction. Buy a good deal of it in a place where you are trying to induce people to use the library. It is good bait. Choose the best and duplicate.

It is a good plan to "put all recent novels on your list tentatively only, and drop them if time does not prove them good," but the plan of buying no novel less than a year old does not seem workable for the average public library. There is a good deal in having what you want when you want it. Do you remember Thackeray's plea for novels? "All people with

[1] Bulletin of A. L. A. Committee on Bookbuying, June, 1906.

healthy literary appetites love them—almost all women;—a vast number of clever hard-headed men . . . judges, bishops, chancellors, mathematicians are notorious novel-readers; as well as young boys and sweet girls and their kind tender mothers."

Mr J. C. Dana says of fiction: "Much of the best literature is fiction. . . If printing was a happy thought and books are not a curse, then novels must be praised. They belong, with the dramas and the poems, among the good things which make our heritage; which unite men by community of thought and feeling; which make it a joy to have the art of reading; and give us simple pleasures, strong emotions, knowledge of our fellows, and sympathy with all mankind.

One may live well and be happy and read no stories; but most are wiser, happier and worth more to their fellows for the novels they have read."

And again: "Many-sidedness of interest makes for good morals, and millions of our fellows step through the pages of a story book into a broader world than their nature and their circumstances ever permit them to visit. If anything is to stay the narrowing and hardening process which specialization of learning, specialization of inquiry and of industry and swift accumulation of wealth are setting up among us, it is a return to romance, poetry, imagination, fancy, and the general culture we are now taught to despise. Of all these the novel is a part; rather, in the novel are all of these."

(20) Avoid a personal bias in your selection. Avoid a religious bias. Avoid a literary bias. Avoid all bias.

Who shall select the books, librarian or trustees? It has been assumed that the librarian, if a person of education and culture, will do the selecting. She knows her library and the demands upon it as no busy trustee can. It is often, however, convenient for the librarian to have a book board whose approval or disapproval of purchases she may quote to a sometimes disappointed public.

To sum up, brains, knowledge of books, knowledge of the people whom one would serve are the prime essentials in selecting books for the public library. Given these the choice is easy, or would be, save for one thing—money to pay for the books chosen. How shall we secure the money? Ah, that, as Kipling says, is "another story."

BOOK SELECTION

Succinct advice differing widely from the angle of other writers, and reducing red tape to a minimum. The extract quoted is taken from a paper on The Relation of the Catalog Department to Other Departments of the library, presented to the Catalog section at the Kaaterskill conference of the A.L.A. in 1913. The writer, Beatrice Winser, has been the assistant librarian of the Newark, N.J. Public Library for many years.

The subject assigned to me is the relation of the catalog department to other departments in a library. There is a feeling abroad that it is the tendency of librarians to consider their catalog departments as things apart, the details of whose management, long ago settled by experts, should be modified only as those experts may suggest.

Probably chief librarians do not have the habit of refraining from giving frequent and careful examinations in the catalog departments, or have less interest in the improvement of those departments than in others; but, because it has been possible for experts to formulate rules, as it has not been possible for anyone to do for other branches of the work, the chief librarians have quite naturally allowed themselves to pay less and less attention to the details of these departments, which have thus lost the stimulus which the chief librarians give to the departments with which they largely concern themselves.

This, naturally, as I have already said, tends to make of the cataloging department a thing apart and much efficiency is lost to the library as a whole because of it.

For the purposes of this paper I propose to include in the scope of the cataloging department much of the work on books from their selection to their placing on the shelf.

It must be borne in mind that I am speaking of public libraries and not of college, historical, scientific or special libraries of any kind, and that I am making suggestions only.

Book Selection

The selection of books instead of being a difficult and complicated matter calling for hours of study and conference, is really quite simple. Every librarian should expect his more intelligent assistants to make suggestions and help to keep his or her own collection up to date, but final decisions as to purchase should rest in the hands of two or three only. An attempt to let a dozen or more people discuss at meetings of the value of any book or books and the propriety of adding this or that to the library costs enormously in time and money, and serves no useful purpose.

It improves the quality of the books selected but little, it tends to develop undue caution and to make the choice too literary and, if it helps to educate the assistants, it does so at too great a cost. The desire is often expressed that a library should contain "a well-rounded, well-balanced collection of books." This phrase sounds well and perhaps impresses the trustees or the town, but what does it really mean? Were we to follow it to its logical conclusion we would all buy in certain fixed proportions, all kinds of books and while we might then lay claim that we had a well-balanced collection, we would be far from filling well the special needs of any special community in which we might be placed. In point of fact every library buys what it thinks it needs most, in most cases it will be found that the books selected are the best books for that library. Most books buy themselves, others cry out to be selected. The clientele is waiting for them. The small remnant of specially chosen books call for no elaborate conferences. Why have any system of recording the fact that you did not buy certain books at this time, since next month or next year the book not bought has been displaced by another? Besides, you can always discover from your bibliographical aids the books you have been compelled to miss, so why duplicate the work already done for you?

THE CHOICE OF BOOKS IN TRAVELING LIBRARIES

Wisconsin was one of the pioneer states in establishing traveling libraries, and Mrs. Burr Jones, better known in library circles by her maiden name of Katherine I. MacDonald, has long been keenly alive to the opportunities opened up by this work in rural communities. The problem differs from that of a circulating library in that there is no librarian in attendance to advertise or recommend individual books.

Katherine MacDonald Jones was born February 21, 1866 near La Crosse, Wis., and graduated from the University of Wisconsin in 1886. She became assistant under the Wisconsin Library Commission in 1899, and served as its assistant secretary in 1901 to 1907. From 1906 until 1908, she was the editor of the A.L.A. Booklist, resigning to marry Burr W. Jones, Justice of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin. She resides in Madison.

No more interesting problem commands the attention of the worker with traveling libraries than the selection of books. The varying conditions of the communities to be served as to size, age, occupation, nationality, remoteness from or proximity to the centers of industrial and social exchange; more or less rapid changes going on in the same places; the perplexities always attending the choice of small groups in which considerations of proportion and balance must enter, as well as value and suitability of particular books;—all combine to make a many-sided, fascinating study.

As has often been pointed out, the books in traveling library collections must stand on their own merits wholly without the skilful advertisement of the trained librarian. It is the exceptional case when the librarian of a traveling library exerts any

particular influence on the reading of its patrons. If the library is placed in the general store the proprietor and his helpers are too busy to acquaint themselves with the books, much less to assist borrowers in their choices. If he displays advantageously the placard advertising the library, distributes catalogues and returns the library intact with records showing fair circulation, his duty has been accomplished. The annotated catalogues, notes on books for the librarian, classified lists attractive bookmarks all help, but nothing approaches the personal recommendation and enthusiastic comment.

Since this is the case too much consideration cannot be given to the character of the book, the edition, the print, the paper, to the smallest detail of the physical makeup. The widely different solutions offered by the several Commissions to this important matter of selection is not entirely explained by difference in conditions. A totally different point of view and principle of choice must in part account for such dissimilar results. Two plans have been followed in making up traveling libraries: (1) selection from a general miscellaneous collection based on demand for certain titles and filled in with such books as are judged suitable for the particular recipient; (2) fixed groups from which demand for special books cannot be supplied to any extent. It is not the purpose of this discussion to compare the merits of the two systems. The present tendency, in several quarters, to combine them—that is to employ fixed groups for general service and supplement with special collections made up from a general library—is the most significant commentary on their respective limitations and excellences. It is obviously impossible to study the temporary selections made from large collections, but something can be gained from the careful examination of the printed lists of fixed groups. While individual lists perhaps may not be taken as types, some being the results of tempting cheap clearance lists and other incidents and accidents, still the complete set of catalogues of a travelling library system must to a certain degree express the general policy of selection.

Whatever the method of choice has been one experience is universal: all preconceived notions of popularity are completely overturned by the actual record of circulation. When asked for a list of books for traveling library purposes the veteran comes to have no ideas of his own, he simply turns to the statistics of use for answer.

The question "Is this a good traveling library book?" has been answered by another question, "Why traveling library book? Have the readers of traveling library books different tastes from all the rest of the world?" But the first question is just as pertinent as the present burning query as to where to draw the line between the book for the small library and the large library. It is really not a question as to the worth of the book, but of the amount of use it will get in the village, the hamlet, on the farm. Even a cursory glance through the catalogues of any of the commissions, from the first to the latest, will show, almost without exception, that the percentage of "heavy" books has decreased, and the *kind* of "heavy" books has gradually but very certainly changed. This probably does not indicate change in patronage, but does show the adaptation of selection to demand. We all started out with the proud claim that we should put in the best books that the people would read, but it is evident that, consciously or unconsciously, a good many were sent out that ought to be, but were not, read.

There is no doubt that a thorough discussion from every point of view by those who do the actual work of selection would prove not only interesting in the extreme, but most profitable to the commonwealth each seeks to serve. It is hoped that the results of the circular letters sent out by Mr. Dewey early last fall will be worked into a summary that may be used as a basis for such discussion.

The result of experience in Wisconsin shows but a single and limited phase of the subject, but is interesting so far as it goes. From the first, circulation has been recorded of each book. It has frequently been asked by visiting advisors and critics whether these records were worth the time required to make them. We have often questioned it ourselves, but the accumulated evidence of years, incomplete and inadequate as it is, is obtainable from no other source, and bears so directly upon future service that no doubt is left in the minds of those most immediately connected with the work as to its practical value.

These statistics show that some of the classes which we had believed would be most popular are scarcely used at all. A notable instance is that of books on agriculture. Wisconsin, being a state of large and growing agricultural interests, and one in which training schools, institutes and various societies

are active in raising the standard of agricultural industries, it was naturally supposed that books on agricultural subjects would certainly be called for. We were astonished to find them used almost not at all, although great care was taken in the choice of the best books that were popularly written. Indeed some books on the general subject were not issued once in seven years they were in circulation. Books on special subjects like those of Macmillan's admirable Rural Science Series, for instance, Bailey's *Principles of vegetable growing,* and *Principles of fruit growing,* full of excellent material, but arranged like text books with side heads and small wood and line-cut illustrations, share the same fate. Others of more popular appearance like Comstock's *How to keep bees* are faring little better. In fact the prejudice goes so far we have been inclined to ascribe the failure of Mrs. Martin's really interesting book on South Africa, *Home life on an ostrich farm,* to that fatal word farm. This state of things may be explained, in part, by the large number of farm papers in circulation, and still further by the fact that most people seek the little library for pleasure rather than for information, which they are getting in satisfying amounts from every-day experience and innumerable institutes, conferences and training classes alluded to.

A similar experience, though not quite so pronounced, attends the nature books intended for adults. With all their attractions, and they certainly are among the most beautiful books now made, they have been read but little. Our conclusions are these: the people who really read bird books are the women—and few men—of more or less leisure who live in towns far enough removed from the haunts of any considerable variety of birds, to make it a pleasurable effort to hunt after them; the everyday care of domestic animals has taken from the rural reader any glamor of interest which might attach to the habits and manners of their cousins of the wild. Whatever the reason or reasons, the fact remains that nature books for grown-ups are reposing usually on the traveling library shelves in Wisconsin, and are not being rebound or replaced after every third or fourth trip. The same cannot be said of children's books because nature subjects find an important place in the school program. The only reason the children's nature books do not carry a very large circulation is

because latterly they have been included in many school library lists.

It has been surprising that so little use has been made of books on civic improvement, and garden books (of which there have been so many delightful recent examples) when one considers the attention these subjects are receiving all over the state. Nothing is so noticeable to the traveler as the remarkable change taking place even in hamlets. Electric light, paving, waterworks, cement walks, sewerage systems, parking of public grounds, new school-houses and city halls, improvement of home grounds are the order of the day. But the book on the subject is not relied on as an aid if our statistics mean anything. This has not been true of special collections, two of which were kept in circulation several years, however usually in larger towns where the librarian of the public library could help to make them effective. Popular books of science, astronomy, geology are, of course, rare. Like the nature books demand for them is limited, but enough so that we feel bound to put in the most popular of them for the sake of the occasional reader. Books on applied science, industries, inventions, etc., are, of course, more used, probably because of the element of adventure which enters into them. If we had but more of them!—at least of the better sort. The difficulty appears to lie in making them popular and at the same time reliable.

Literature brings another disappointment. Poetry is apparently little appreciated, perhaps because in almost every house are found a few copies of poetry, in the shape of gift books. Collections, even the best speakers, which one might reasonably expect would be useful for local entertainments, circulate only fairly well and that spasmodically.

Translations of the classics or myths retold for older young people and adults are not read. But good editions of the delightful books for children are welcome where acquaintance with the old stories is made at school. Perhaps when the children of today are men and women our nature books and myths for grown-ups will no longer be neglected. Books about books, of literary criticism, are scarcely touched and those of purely literary value get only an occasional reading. Some collections of essays, especially those on present day subjects, like Roosevelt's *Strenuous life,* and *American ideals,* have had fairly good circulation.

The output of literature on sociology and economics the last few years, especially the large number of readable, popularly-written books, would seem to indicate a wide general interest which has not yet reached the small towns, villages, and country districts. While an occasional book like Johnson's *American railway transportation* has received a little attention (not at all what the subject of the most important political issue of the last election and session of legislature would presumably command); and a book on life insurance will probably enjoy a passing interest because of the sensational investigations in progress, if not by reason of a direct relation to the reader's pocket; the books on stock subjects, such as labor, finance, the trusts, are almost never read. Why this is, would be hard to say. It may be there is no interest in these subjects, or the brief treatment of the magazine and newspaper may be more satisfactory to the average reader than the more scientific treatment of the long work.

Biography has, as a rule, a steady circulation but not so large as expected. It is a curious fact that little interest is shown in lives of any characters in ancient or even mediaeval history. However thrilling the story may be, if it be not of a modern whose name and personality is tolerably familiar, it is of little or no interest. Of course biographies such as Evans' *A Sailor's log,* Washington's *Up from slavery,* Riis' *Making of an American,* Helen Keller's *Story of my life* circulate as well as some fiction. The lives of Lincoln, Grant, Gladstone, Bismarck, Napoleon, Farragut, Boone and other well-known men of action, statesmen or soldiers, retain a certain interest, always finding a few readers if the book be of medium size and fairly attractive. It has been a matter of some interest that the little Beacon Biographies, and the Riverside Biographical series have had few readings and the same is equally true of the two-volume lives. Absorbing as is Schurz' *Life of Henry Clay,* it has seldom been taken from the shelves, in nineteen trips the first volume having circulated twelve times and the second but seven. The same holds good with history, the single-volume, swift-moving, vivid narrative finding always a few readers, while the more discursive and usually more valuable and even more interesting, two-or-three-volume history stands unused on the shelves. Fortunately there are a good many short books on our own history that are available. They have an especial use

in a state with so large a foreign population as has Wisconsin. Our new-made citizens are anxious to learn of their country—their new possession. This has been particularly observable in the readers of our traveling libraries of foreign books, for which we have not been able to get enough books on American history. The stories of the fatherland or the mother-country are familiar perhaps, and it is the understanding of the new strange land that is desired.

Short readable histories of foreign countries are few and far between. What little history the average reader gets of foreign lands he finds mostly in the new combination history-and-travel book which lightly outlines the history of the country treated; describes its monuments and great cities, physical features, its manners and customs; discusses its economic position in the world's great industrial system, its art, its literature; defines its religion, its esoteric philosophy, if it has any; all this in a neat, tidy, not-too-large volume, adorned with many interesting half-tones within and a bright attractive cover without.

It is certainly true that books of travel, while very uneven as to statistics, are, on the whole, read more than any other non-fiction. And as it appears "the world is so full of a number of" these, we should surely be happy to search out only the best of them. Travel combined with adventure is particularly popular, as are narrative descriptions of life as seen by an intelligent wanderer, with anecdotes interspersed, anecdotes that often make a picture or give an insight that no end of description can. The solid book of information with comparative statistics, is seldom appreciated.

The returns from fiction are more in accord with our expectations. The historical novel, the story of action, the simple love story, the latest much-talked-of tale of ubiquitous advertisement, and the story of mystery are issued oftenest; the story of delicate workmanship, the collection of short stories, the subtle studies of character and temperament, the picture of local conditions, more or less out of the way with conversation colloquial, if not in dialect, the psychological novel, and the story about children but for grown-ups are read less, and the story of humor finds a whimsical career, now rushing and now leisurely. One interesting experiment has proved quite beyond question that if the standard is to compete in any way with

current fiction it must be supplied in the most attractive edition procurable. It is to be regretted that many of the best editions of Scott, Thackeray, Dickens and Eliot are printed in small though excellent type, which gives a close, heavy appearance to the page not attractive to the eye used to the open page in vogue at present. When they do appear in large print they usually are divided into two volumes, which are always to be avoided. But, it is certain the best editions of the best books should be selected, tempting as the cheap editions are. At first we made use of some of the Burt, Crowell, and Little cheap editions, many of which are remarkably well printed and made for the very small price paid for them. They do very well for some of the love, detective and adventure stories that are perennial favorites and will be read enough in whatever guise they appear. But the classics must be well-garbed to hold their own with the alluring charms of the newest fiction. A good many striking examples could be cited, one of which will illustrate. The Macmillan edition of Jane Austen's *Pride and prejudice,* illustrated by Hugh Thomson, was put into five duplicate libraries. According to report of many librarians this is not commonly in much demand, but our statistics show that one copy circulated from eleven to eighteen times in each of six months' visits, and all the copies averaged more than six and a half circulations in less than six months. This is not a large circulation compared to that of a "best seller," but it is certainly satisfactory.

Let us now turn to the children's books. It is often presumed that the school libraries, which are found in every district school, as well as village and city of the state, obviate the necessity of putting many, if any, children's books in traveling libraries. This is by no means the case. Indeed, so great is the demand for juvenile literature that our constant temptation is to increase its proportion. In the district schools the collection is usually so small that it in no way interferes with the traveling library. In the villages the popular books wear out quickly, are rarely replaced, and those left on the shelves are mostly used by the teacher in connection with class-work or for supplementary reading. It is true that some books in each traveling library, as a rule non-fiction, are found in some of the school libraries, but there is very little duplication in any one place. There is a call for stories of adventure, and books

for the very little people which we cannot begin to fill. The increase of these and reduction of non-fiction has been under consideration. On the other hand, the classed books are of great assistance to the teachers when they are sufficiently interested to use them. Moreover, if we may be permitted to generalize from scattering reports of visits to traveling library stations, we must believe that some of the non-fiction written for young people is read often by adults.

One thing has been evident from the first: the physical attractiveness of page and cover bears a very distinct relation to popularity with children. The book with cover that looks like a school book does not appeal. For this reason many of Houghton's admirable little books, well-made, well printed, but with gray-brown covers and few or no pictures, must suffer. The same is, of course, to be said of the publications of the school book companies. The chances of favor may be increased by supplying what one can in the trade editions at little additional cost over that of the school form.

Quite naturally children's non-fiction is more read than adult. History and travel are particularly attractive to the middle and upper grades. Apparently children do not find the joy in poetry they did of yore, more's the pity, but they know not what they lose. The fairy tale has a capricious fate, depending on the approval or disapproval of neighborhood grown-ups. Myths and classics retold are rarely really popular except in beautiful editions, but are always read a certain amount.

Books on how to make and do things are not steadily used as in public libraries, in fact are most variable, circulating many times in one place and not at all in others. Entertainments, amusements, magic evidently have no allurements. Books about inventions are in demand and we can never find enough of adventure like the books on Custer, Forsyth's *Thrilling days of army life,* Moffet's *Careers of danger and daring, Famous prison escapes in the Civil War,* Kieffer's *Recollections of a drummer boy,* Hill's *Fighting a fire,* Frothingham's *Sea fighters from Drake to Farragut,* Du Chaillu's travels and others of the kind.

There is no doubt that much could be done with really good biography, but little is available except for use in connection with school-work. The nearest approach is the historical story in which one well-known hero is the central figure. The pop-

ularity of this form of fiction for boys is only surpassed by the story of adventure, for which the demand is undoubtedly insatiable.

It is pleasure to report the bound volumes of *St. Nicholas* always enjoyed. Their record never rises to the highest, nor does it drop near to the lowest. One volume bound in two parts, that the continued stories may be complete, is put into nearly every traveling library.

What then does a study of our statistics show? They demonstrate, as do most library statistics, that fiction and children's books are far-and-away more popular than any but the most popular non-fiction. Shall we then conclude to make our traveling libraries of children's books and novels to the exclusion of history, travel, biography and the rest, except in homeopathic doses? Not at all—is the probable reply. Should statistics affect proportions in future choice at all, and if so, how far? This is the question for discussion. The wise answer must needs be modified from time to time as conditions change, and training tells, for it is earnestly hoped we do lead on to better things. But what of the present?

In the midst of all the puzzling queries and conflicting arguments we have arrived at a few decided opinions which affect, but do not determine, the main problem:

1. The general libraries, that is, the fixed groups, should correspond to that part of the public library which is in active circulation.

2. There should be a general collection of non-fiction, not duplicated to any extent, from which small groups may be selected for special needs. These need not be the most exhaustive books on the subject, but popular books on subjects not commonly called for, books that heretofore have been included in the fixed libraries but have stood idle on the shelves most of the time.

3. Buy the most attractive and beautiful editions of classics and standard novels, both for children and adults. If money must be saved let it be on the very popular fiction, which will be read whatever its forms, and much of which may be had in more or less good cheap editions.

4. Visit the stations as often as possible and make one of the most important parts of your visit the discussion of the books with the librarian and any other interested person you

can induce to look them over with you. Enlist the teachers, if possible. They change often, but may carry the good work on elsewhere, and should leave some good seed behind them.

5. Keep on recording statistics of circulation of individual books, and studying them.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN MANUFACTURING COMMUNITIES

At the present time, one would expect such a title to presage a good deal of advice on the selection of technical books for the worker, but in 1876, when this article appeared, the subject was new and the writer, William I. Fletcher of Amherst College Library, devotes most of the space to administration and emphasizes the need in such a community for literary culture. A sketch of Mr. Fletcher appears in Volume II of this series. He wrote as follows:

It will naturally be made a leading object of the public library in an industrial community to furnish scientific and mechanical books adapted to assist artisans in their special callings, particularly in fitting themselves for advancement and promotion, and improving the quality of their work. Just at this time, when special efforts are being made to save the country the large sums annually sent abroad to renumerate foreign workers in the arts of design, by thorough and widespread instruction in those arts among ourselves, all works which can be had bearing on these and kindred subjects will be sought. Facilities should be furnished for the making of copies from books of engravings, etc., and the freest use of all works on the fine arts allowed that is consistent with their proper preservation. But there is little need of dwelling on points so obvious; and we will turn to another not so generally recognized—the importance of providing, even in manufacturing communities, for liberal literary culture. We ought to have said especially in manufacturing communities, for there is greater need here than in those places in which private libraries abound, and the English classics at least are to be found in nearly every house. After all that can be said, the real mission of the public library is to furnish, not recreation, not the means of earning a better living, but culture; and whatever we have said as to its mis-

sion being limited by the wants of the people must be understood to mean by their real wants, not their fancied ones. "Culture," says Matthew Arnold, "is indispensibly necessary, ...the poor require it as much as the rich,...and culture is reading; but reading with a purpose to guide it, and with system. He does a good work who does anything to help this; indeed, it is the one essential service now to be rendered to education." This is the service rendered by the public library if it not only supplies books, but educates the people in their use. And nowhere is there more occasion to give prominence to this latter function of the library than in manufacturing communities.

THE LIBRARY IN RELATION TO SPECIAL CLASSES OF READERS: SUPPLY AND USE OF TECHNOLOGICAL BOOKS

The early idea of a library collection was very well expressed by Mellen Chamberlain in an address read at the dedication of the Brooks Public Library in Brattleboro, Vt. in 1887. He said, "This library is primarily a library institution, designed, as are all such institutions, to endue the people with learning and wisdom and the sense of beauty, that they may become a fountain from which shall flow learning and wisdom and beauty in unending succession." Ten years later the prevailing idea of a library collection was that it should include books for every need including that of the industrial worker; and the writer of the following article, Harrison W. Craver, then technology librarian of the Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, describes what can be done by the small library as well as the large in reaching this part of the community. He presented it at the Narragansett Pier conference of the A. L. A. in 1906. As John C. Dana has expressed it, "The great books of the humanities, these we must have; but with these, almost before these, we must have the books of knowledge."

Harrison Warwick Craver was born in Owaneco, Ill., August 10, 1875. He graduated from the Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Ind., in 1895, and served first as technology librarian, 1903 to 1908, and then as librarian of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, 1908 to 1917. Since 1917, he has held the position of director of the Engineering Societies Library, New York City.

The question of supplying communities with technological books through the agency of municipal libraries is one which

at present is attracting considerable attention among librarians. In the past the library has had its largest success in meeting the wants of women and children, but has not succeeded so well in obtaining the interest of the men. This has been a disadvantage in more ways than one; it has largely reduced the possible influence of the library and has also deprived it of the assistance it might have obtained from a large number of men —men who vote and pay the taxes which support the library— if it were to them an institution of practical value and not merely "a good thing for the city."

For some time it has been felt that this condition was wrong, but until recently little seems to have been done to change it. The library has been content to move along the line of least resistance—a line along which all its resources could easily be spent usefully—leaving the department of applied science practically undeveloped. Departments of music and art have been established the children have been given careful attention; it now seems time to turn some serious effort to practical work for men.

In discussing the question I will speak first of the larger city libraries, as the conditions under which they work are more familiar to me and the problem seems more easily capable of satisfactory solution.

This branch of work requires of course, a fair degree of acquaintance with technological topics, and with manufacturing, mining and engineering; subjects which are not ordinarily a part of the prospective librarian's education. While it is possible to select books well enough without this special knowledge, by the use of various aids in selection with which all librarians are familiar, the reference work is very difficult and unsatisfactory, unless the patron can be met half way and his questions intelligently discussed. The proper solution of the question in the large library is to place upon the staff one trained in industrial work, either by college or by practice, or preferably both, and who is broadly interested in the literature of the subject. With this equipment he is able to take up the question of book selection intelligently and also to give efficient service in rendering the resources of the library available to its patrons. Such an assistant can simplify the problem greatly for the head of the library.

The actual selection of technological books is not such a bugbear as many librarians seem to believe it. Just as in other

lines, there are certain publishers who maintain a high standard, certain who rarely issue anything of value, and certain others who hit or miss by turns. The technical journals review the new books regularly and often well. In no other class of literature is the reputation and position of the author a safer index of the value of the book. Of course if modern science and industry is an absolutely unknown field, book selection is difficult; but this is equally true of music or of art.

In our own library we make weekly lists of the new books and carefully collate all reviews. From these and from our general knowledge of the author and the present condition of our collection along the line in question, the decision is made. By watching all sources for book titles, we believe that little really valuable material escapes notice.

The special trial of the technology librarian is the rapidity with which his collection ages to the point of uselessness. In five or ten years his good working collection no longer represents actual practice, and he finds its usefulness vanishing. Changes occur with marvellous rapidity in many industrial lines and the library must be prepared to keep pace. In a collection devoted to the applied sciences and intended to aid men in earning their livelihood, the point of first importance is that information furnished shall be accurate and modern, shall represent present-day thought. To be able to fill this requirement constant buying is necessary, not only of good new books, but also of new editions of old standards. Because a library has *a* copy of Thompson's "Dynamo-electric machinery" it does not follow that it has *the* copy of Thompson's "Dynamo-electric machinery. Times change and the books must also change, the old ones going to the scrap pile or to a historical collection of what has been. This point is often not sufficiently appreciated. Size means little in a technological collection, modernity means much.

In selecting books it must be remembered that among the readers there will be many who have no knowledge of these subjects but that acquired by daily toil at a trade, and that to these, but little versed in the reception of knowledge through the printed word, the books of theory will often prove of little use. It is necessary to have books of a rudimentary nature as well as the best books, for many which are a little weak in theoretical explanations have much useful practical information.

It should also be remembered that the public library's collection should be modelled on practical rather than academic

lines. The demand which comes is not for theories but for facts and the collection needed is not that which would find greatest favor among scholars. Their needs should certainly not be neglected, but at the same time the wants of practical workers must constantly be kept in mind and supplied as far as is possible.

In addition to books, a collection of periodicals is of utmost importance. There is always an appreciable gap between the most modern book and the present, and this the periodicals will fill. To-day the engineering journals are the most important publications you can have; the back volumes form useful reference sets and the current numbers enable you to supply that demand for "the latest," and that, too, in the department where this cry is most insistent, save possibly in that devoted to fiction.

Looking at it in another way, the periodicals are to be favored because of their cheapness. The average engineering book sells for a cent a page, if not more, while the magazines furnish from two to four thousand pages for five dollars. If economy is a motive, economy lies in the direction of periodicals rather than in that of books, even when the cost of binding is considered.

In looking over the field which a library expects to serve, it is usually found that the industrial life of the people moves largely along certain lines and that many industries are of little prominence or are lacking. In the region supplied by the institution with which I am connected, for instance, the active industries are largely concerned with the metallurgy of iron, the manufacture of machinery, structural engineering, glassmaking and mining. Other industries, as potting, are also present, but to a smaller extent; while certain great classes, as wood working and the textile industries, are almost unrepresented. Such a survey of a library's field shows it where it must be strong and where it may be weak, and so aids in book selection. There is little use in buying technical books on a subject in which your community is not interested. Spend your money on those it needs.

All these questions of when and what to buy are easily solved by the head of a department doing the work with the books if he has a good grasp of the local situation; and so much depends upon local conditions that anything further than suggestions of the broadest character would be of little use.

Turning from book selection to book use we find the field divided, as usual, into loan and reference work. Each of these branches calls for technological books. The loan department is usually more insistent in its demands and may be heard farther, but there is in many places an opportunity sometimes scarcely appreciated for much reference work.

This field sometimes seems missing when in reality it is there but unoccupied because of a deadlock. The library buys little suitable material because no one ever calls for it; the engineer or manufacturer will not waste valuable time in consulting the city library because it has never been able to help him. Thus much work remains undone and a large section of the population learns to view the library as a place of amusement, useful enough in its way, but of no assistance in everyday problems.

Now this situation will never be changed unless the library makes the move, and the proper move is the establishment of an active reference department of technology.

There is where your trained assistant will find his best field for work. With his collection of books and periodicals at hand, his next step is to get them used. He must push them forward as he can at first, until his trade is established, so to speak, and must advertise as he can. If he is eligible to local technical societies he should join and become known, and enlarge his acquaintance with his possible patrons in all possible ways.

To my mind, the proper model for a reference technology department in a city is a consulting engineer's office. Some one in the department should be able to treat the question asked with sufficient knowledge both of their conditions and the resources of the library to point the way toward an answer. To do this is not always a question of having a book; sometimes an advertisement or a trade catalog will do the work, sometimes the problem can be solved from one's own personal knowledge. It matters little what the method is, provided the result is obtained.

A useful form of library consultation is that obtainable by telephone and by mail. We have a number of regular users of the library whose visits to the building are scarcely semi-annual. In some factory offices we are proud to know that we are the first to be called on for anything not at hand, from an engineering formula to a manufacturer's address. Telephonic

assistance seems particularly appreciated and is well worth the trouble it entails.

A good field for usefulness is to be found in the publication of brief bibliographies from time to time. Bibliographies of technological material are not plentiful, and the amount of time needed to search through the mass of poorly indexed periodicals often makes it a troublesome task which might better be done once for all. Certain questions return to the library regularly, and a list of available material concerning these is very useful.

It seems to me that handling technological books becomes a more difficult problem when we come to consider small libraries, in which it must be done as part of the general work. Lacking specially trained assistants, much must be omitted, but there is still an opportunity to be considerable assistance to those interested in industrial subjects.

In selecting books it is often possible to follow the lead of some larger library, taking from their lists the best books. This will guide one to some extent, by eliminating many books at once. Another plan is to make use of volunteer assistance. Some users of the library will often look over lists or books relating to their work and select those of greatest value to the library. One fault of this plan lies in the tendency of everyone to view with special favor books on his own particular specialty and to minimize the value of other work; it is rather hard for such an adviser to avoid bias. Another trouble is that the aid is often too irregular to be really useful.

There are, however, many libraries in America which are not now large enough to employ expert service in technology, but which nevertheless have need for some assistance. The best method of meeting their needs lies, I believe, in co-operation; in arranging to have some one with the proper requirements make the selections for a number of different libraries. If the advice given is to be really efficient, however, it cannot be done wholesale by means of a list sent to all alike. Each library and its local needs must be made the subject of special study. If such an adviser were to spend time enough to become acquainted with the town and its needs, and was supplied with full information as to the present resources of the library and the amount to be spent on technology each year, he should be able to advise monthly purchases which would build up a col-

lection well adapted to local requirements, and that at no greater expense than under a system of haphazard buying.

In addition, such an expert bureau would be able to give aid to some extent in reference work. Many questions which come up and are left unanswered could be sent to the bureau.

So far as use is concerned, the small library should work along the lines of the larger ones as far as it can. It cannot give as good service in the way of aid to the readers, but it can have as good books and let the patrons hunt through them for themselves. It must be remembered, too, that it is much easier to handle a small collection than a large one, and so easier for the public to arrive at a knowledge of the material available.

As regards the results obtained by systematic development of a technological department, it is hard to furnish direct statistical evidence of any great improvement. Books on useful arts are but dull reading to most, and will be called for only when needed. Many borrowers come but seldom; but if good work is done the library may rest content with the knowledge that they will come whenever they need help. In our own case, where one-third of the visitors to the reference rooms come for material of an industrial nature, we feel that this work is at least as highly appreciated as that in other lines.

SUPPLYING BOOKS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

The question "Can we afford to let the foreigner remain uneducated" is an important phase of this subject which was discussed before the Long Island Library Club, Brooklyn, by J. Maud Campbell, librarian of the Passaic Public Library, N. J., in 1903, long before the days of Americanization classes. Miss Campbell was early interested in this department of library work and speaks with authority.

J. Maud Campbell is a Southerner by birth and served for several years as librarian of the public library at Passaic, N. J., where her success in dealing with the foreign operatives at the silk mills attracted wide attention and won her appointment as chief of the work with the foreign born of the Massachusetts Library Commission. She is now librarian of the Jones Memorial Library at Lynchburg, Va.

The work of the library with which I am familiar is in a manufacturing town of about 30,000 people; the foreign population is over 38 per cent., and between the taking of the census in 1890 and 1900 the foreign population had increased 55 per cent. Our branch library is situated in the centre of the manufacturing district and contains books in 11 different languages — English, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Hungarian, Russian, Polish, Slavic, Hebrew and Yiddish. The number of books in the 10 foreign tongues represents only 25 per cent. of the total accessions and their circulation is 10 per cent. We supply no books in foreign languages to the children, the only requisite for them is that they shall be able to sign their name and read in English.

Before deciding whether to buy foreign books, we should make up our minds for what our libraries are to stand. We hear much of the educational value of the present public li-

brary position. If we wish to be considered in this connection, we will have to follow the line of successful educational ventures. In educating children we lead them by easy stages — sometimes perhaps too easy for their own good — to an appreciation of what is beautiful, beneficial and of good report in our history and literature. We are establishing museums, art galleries, free lectures — all to take people by easy stages to something beyond their present intellectual vision. Why do we expect to educate the foreigner, who comes to us so often cowed by centuries of oppression, confused by customs and a mode of living different from anything he has ever seen or imagined, and naturally suspicious — suspicious that we are aiming at his religion, or his vote, or have some ulterior object—why do we expect to educate him by bringing him into our libraries and saying, "You can't read here in your own language, but see what fine things we have in ours?" We put into his hands books whose very alphabet is about as significant to him as our laundry tickets are to us. The argument that he should go to our free schools and learn to read in our language before coming to the library is about as pertinent as an argument I heard the other day against the establishment of a free library. There was a subscription library in a small town and an effort was being made to change it into a free library; those who were opposed to the scheme, argued that any person of culture could raise the fee necessary to enable him to enjoy the advantages the library had to offer, and that there was no reason for having a library for those without culture. If our libraries depended on the people of culture, I fear our circulation would soon reach the starvation point. It is the people without culture and striving for it who are our salvation!

Think for a moment of the months and years we spend acquiring the mechanical foundations of a foreign tongue; how long it is before we feel familiar enough with the language to enjoy the literary side of Goethe, Dante, Manzoni, Rousseau or Molière; but we can always read and find food for reflection in the books in our own language. Must the poor foreigner go through a period of intellectual starvation until he has mastered enough English to furnish him with mental food? For if we do not provide him with books in his own language, he is either going to read nothing or get some one else to provide them for him. Now, can we afford to let the foreigner remain

uneducated? The last census showed 10,460,085 foreigners in the United States, about one-seventh of the total population. The census for the fiscal year ending last June shows that in the past year 857,000 immigrants have come here; a greater number than the total strength of the French and German army combined, or the British army including India; this for one year. In New Jersey with a population of 1,883,669, we had by the last census 431,884 foreigners. Of our total males of voting age 10.8 per cent. are illiterate; of our foreign born males of voting age 11.5 per cent. are illiterate and 10.2 per cent. can't speak English; in my own county of Passaic with 18,743 native males of voting age, we have 24,213 foreigners of voting age. Can we afford to ignore these foreigners? To educate them, we have to take them where we find them; we must provide them with something to think about in their own language, if they can't think in ours — and their literature has a surprising number of good things — things we know only too little about, unfortunately. By having books in their own languages we attract the foreigners to our libraries and even if you cannot speak a word to them, it is the easiest thing in the world to show your sympathy and rouse their ambition to master our tongue. What must be the effect on the children of those foreigners to be brought up in homes absolutely devoid of books? A little boy told me with evident pride not very long ago that his father was learning to speak English; he was a German and had been 10 years in the country without learning the language; but he came to the library to read the papers and always stopped in the children's room for the little boy. One night he asked what it was the children said as they went out that made the lady at the desk look up and smile; by the next night he had mastered the intricacies of "good night" and is now constantly coming in to surprise us with some new phrase in English.

But we are making a mistake if we think these foreigners are *not* reading because the public libraries are not providing them with books in their own tongues. Some one is doing for them — and for love — what we think is either beyond us, or beneath us, while we are taxing them to support our public libraries. I had an instance of this recently in regard to Slavic books. We had frequent requests for books in Slavic and I applied to the larger libraries for information as to where they

could be procured, but without getting much assistance. The New York Public Library having a Slavic department, I was allowed to look over their collection, but the books would have appealed to my patrons — young men and women, working from 10 to 12 hours a day in the mills — about as much as the "Codex Argenteus" would appeal to one of our grammar school pupils. I then applied to the book importers; they could all import books, but could not say what the books were. If I would send fifty dollars they would get fifty dollars' worth of books but they could not say whether I could get a history of the United States in Slavic, or a history of the Ruthenians in their own tongue, or in fact, let me have any idea as to what the money would bring. Yet the Slavic people around us were reading and getting books in their own language. One evening last summer, I passed a house where about 15 Slavic girls were sitting on the steps crooning songs in their own language; they stopped me to show me a new book of their folk-songs. I asked where they had bought it. "Mr. Pavsco always got their books for them." A boy brought us a history of Servia in Slavic: "Mr. Pavsco" had bought it for him. On every side it was the same; here in my own community Mr. Pavsco, a man of whom you and I never heard, living in a place of which I had never heard — Pittston, Pa. — was supplying the needs of over 8000 people, and they all agree that he knows more about Slavic literature than any man in America. The same thing occurred in trying to buy Hungarian books. After haunting the foreign quarter of New York, Avenues A and B and First and Second streets and being sent from one place to another—from a Hungarian newspaper office, where they had a large and curious assortment of hymn-books and calendars, but no literature, to a bakery, where a few Hungarian paper novels were being rented at the rate of ten cents a week, and no amount of money seemed sufficient to induce the good woman to part with any of her stock in trade — after lining up with a rare assortment of emigrants at a Hungarian money-changer's who, I was told, imported everything, and only getting about a score of books — I gave the matter up as hopeless and to the next person who asked for more books in Hungarian, I replied that the Hungarian books we had were all I had been able to find, but that if he would buy 25, the library would pay for them. I thought we had seen the last of that Hungarian for at least three months.

Imagine my astonishment when he appeared in fifteen minutes bringing 12 books and saying he would go back for the rest. I went with him to a store not two blocks from our own library, and in half an hour had selected 75 books. The proprietor was quite surprised that as a librarian, I had not known of the fine books that had been translated and printed in Hungarian for an exposition in Buda-Pesth a few years ago. In buying foreign books, if you do not get the small-pox or the pink-eye, you will accumulate enough experiences to fill a three volume novel. I am not speaking of technical books in foreign languages, but of the class of books that would be enjoyed by the class of people our public libraries should try to benefit most.

The foreigner has some rights. We accept his money in taxes to support our libraries and why should we discriminate against him, why favor six-sevenths of our population and ignore the other one-seventh? While it does not appear so at the Barge Office, our manufacturers are actually importing these foreigners, in order that by the combination of a protective tariff and cheap labor, they may amass fortunes for themselves. After we get them here, we must educate them.

I think also we have a great deal to learn from these people. They are polite, ambitious, and appreciative, and oftentimes very well informed. With us it has been noticeable that the children of foreign born parents are better bred and more obedient than our American children, and that those attending their own or the parochial schools are better grounded than the children from the public schools. I do not say this is always the case, I hope not, but it is so in our experience. If they are educated at all — and it is a matter of surprise how many are so very well informed — the adults read a better class of literature than our own people and have a knowledge of our literature and history that would put many of us to shame. I asked an Italian barber to help me catalog our Italian books He was a very ordinary man, reeking of hair-oil and quite devoid of any knowledge of the use of a toothbrush. He had recommended most of the Italian books we had purchased, and as we went over them his explanations showed a wider knowledge of our literature than many of us can boast of Italian — and a knowledge of literature is the business by which we earn our bread and butter. How many of us can say who

is the Browning of Italy, who is their Milton, who wrote their folk-lore poetry as Longfellow wrote of our Indians in Hiawatha? Yet this Italian barber, whose business it was to shave men and cut hair, not to know general literature, knew how to explain the standing of Italian authors to me by comparing them with our own writers. When we came to the life of Garibaldi, he remarked that this was a book every Italian must read and love before he could understand what Washington, Lincoln and Grant meant to Americans; they must love their own patriots before they could appreciate our great Americans.

We hear much of the technique of running a library, but very seldom of the *noblesse oblige* which should be such a high privilege in our profession. We use great efforts to adapt the people to our library methods; it would take less effort to adapt our libraries to the people. Just as there are bad Americans born and brought up here, with every advantage of surroundings and education, so there are good Americans who cannot speak a word of English. These foreigners often love America before they ever set foot in it; they love the principles for which the American government stands. Don't let us, as librarians, be the ones to give them new ideas of what liberty and freedom mean by discriminating against them.

THE SELECTION OF FICTION

The most influential books, and the truest in their influence, are works of fiction. They do not pin the reader to a dogma, which he must afterwards discover to be inexact; they do not teach him a lesson, which he must afterwards unlearn. They repeat, they rearrange, they clarify the lessons of life; they disengage us from ourselves, they constrain us to the acquaintance of others; and they show us the web of experience, not as we can see it ourselves, but with a singular change—that monstrous, consuming ego of our being, for the nonce, struck out. To be so, they must be reasonably true to the human comedy; and any work that is so serves the turn of instruction. But the course of our education is answered best by those poems and romances where we breathe a magnanimous atmosphere of thought and meet generous and pious characters.—*Stevenson. Books Which Have Influenced Me.*

THE ADMISSION OF FICTION TO THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

"The librarian who thought he was putting a poser to the members of the Massachusetts Library Club, when he asked why a library should not run on the theory of giving people just the class of novels they want to read, was really arguing from the mistaken hypothesis that people read the books they want to. As a fact, we all read the things that some well-meaning friend or clever advertisement-writer tells us we ought to read."

The above quotation from *The Boston Transcript* has a good deal of truth in it, but in his Presidential address at the St. Louis Conference of the A. L. A. in 1904, Mr. Charles A. Cutter gives more valid reasons for the admission of fiction to the library collection. A biographical sketch appears in Volume IV of this series.

If there is any question on which common sense gives no uncertain answer it is in the admission of fiction to the public library.

To many persons fiction is the only means possible of going into society, of meeting a variety of their fellow-men, of traveling, of living anything but the dullest and most monotonous of lives. I should no sooner think of excluding fiction altogether from a library than of prohibiting tea and coffee. Both of those beverages do harm to certain constitutions, as fiction destroys the fibre of certain minds; but to deprive the majority, who can safely use all three, of their enjoyment for the sake of the weak few, is not the American method. In a college library one may approach nearest this exclusion; for a student's reading should be mainly study, and his recreation should be out of doors. All the fiction in a college library ought to be classic, to be literature. Slip-shod English and flabby thought should be rigidly kept out. And some such rule may be usually fol-

lowed in the public library to a limited extent. Except in the great cities, the public library is obliged to select its books; it has not money enough to buy everything; why should it not select in some degree for literary merit? Without believing in salvation by style, one may yet think that education in English is one of the functions of that supplementary school which we term library. Well-written books and well-thought books are not necessarily dull. No one calls "Treasure Island" dull. It could not be better written. That is a book of sensational adventure; but there are plenty of love stories, domestic stories, character novels, society novels, that have style, interest, movement, thoughts. Provide such liberally; then, if the money holds out, and it seems necessary to add the vulgarities of Optic and Alger and the twaddle of Mrs. Southworth, do so sparingly. We are told that there is a call for these last authors that must be satisfied, and that a library which lacks them and their likes will be deserted. Undoubtedly there is a call, for they are prolific authors, occupying a great place in the catalog, so that they continually meet the eyes of readers, and, moreover, they have merits. What we want is to substitute: *first,* some other story-tellers who have greater merits, who can tell as interesting stories better, and with a better moral, and *next* to substitute in part some higher class of reading that shall give more information and exercise the mind more. Something can be done, as I here said, by having a plentiful supply of good reading, *all interesting,* and a scanty supply of reading that is not so good. More can be done by judicious suggestion, when advice is sought, or when all the books asked for are out, the greatest care being taken to recommend books that will be sure to be liked, avoiding a dull book like poison. We have been told lately that suggestions will be resented as impertinence; that depends on how they are made. And it has been said that in a busy library there is no time for such work. True, that is one of the advantages of a small town and a small library but,—but,—but,—almost everywhere there is a chance to get in a little of this influence; and when library committees, and the public that is behind library committees, wake up to the perception that in this supplementary public school which we call public library, it is their duty to provide teachers as well as text-books, the attendants in the delivery-room need not all be merely animated machines, with no higher ambition than to

pass over the counter 300 volumes an hour. If there are several attendants, one at least will be competent to give advice; if there is only one, he will have been chosen because he had some knowledge of books—and of human nature. Let no one imagine, by the way, that this attendant—whom in library matters we might call the Adviser or Suggester—will have an easy time, or that a successful adviser can be found everywhere. His or her qualification is tact, tact, tact,—first, last, and all the time, quite as much as book knowledge. Both would grow with practice. Two other qualities the suggester needs—enthusiasm and unfailing patience. The committee, too, must have hope and faith, for statistics are silent here, giving scanty indication of the work that is done. They may indeed show that there is a fractional percentage less of fiction and more of history borrowed, but, as usually kept, they will not indicate that good fiction is read where bad fiction was read before; they do not indicate if the novels taken are read with a purpose or not, with the mind open or shut, if they are devoured at the rate of one a day, or as by the young people's society I knew of where "Romola" was gone through one winter and the "Tale of two cities" another, with photographs and guide books and consultation of histories and discussions of character. The effect of such stories read in such a way might justify Sir John Herschel in regarding "the novel in its best form as one of the most powerful engines of civilization," or prompt the Bishop of Ripon's glowing eulogy on the usefulness of fiction.

WHAT MAKES A NOVEL IMMORAL?

This lecture by Corinne Bacon was delivered to the New York State Library School in 1908 and was printed later, in *New York Libraries,* also in *The Publishers Weekly* and *The Wisconsin Library Bulletin.* In her treatment of the subject, Miss Bacon does not confine herself to the narrow sense of the word "moral," but says that morality includes the whole of life, not simply one relation. Every point brought out is illustrated by well-known book-titles. A biographical sketch will be found on page 43.

Perhaps there is no library topic more interesting both to librarians and to the public whom they serve than the ethical influence of the fiction which forms such a large percentage of the circulation of the average public library. Opinions will probably always differ widely as to whether individual novels are moral or immoral, and yet it should be possible to establish some criteria of morality in fiction to which the majority of us would be willing to consent.

The word *morality* must not, as is often the case, be narrowed down to the equivalent of *sex* morality. George Eliot's *Theophrastus Such* includes an essay on Moral swindlers, in which two women discuss commercial dishonesty. Melissa says:

"'But Sir Gavial made a good use of his money, and he is a thoroughly moral man.'

"'What do you mean by a thoroughly moral man?' said I.

"'Oh, I suppose everyone means the same by that,' said Melissa, with a slight air of rebuke. 'Sir Gavial is an excellent family man—quite blameless there; and so charitable round his place at Tip-top. Very different from Mr. Barabbas, whose life, my husband tells me, is most objectionable.' . . .

"I will not repeat my answer to Melissa, for I fear it was offensively brusque, my opinion being that Sir Gavial was the more pernicious scoundrel of the two, since his name for virtue

served as an effective part of a swindling apparatus, and perhaps I hinted that to call such a man 'moral' showed rather a a silly notion of human affairs. . . . When a man whose business hours, the solid part of every day, are spent in an unscrupulous course of public or private action which has every calculable chance of causing widespread injury and misery, can be called moral because he comes home to dine with his wife and children and cherishes the happiness of his own hearth, the augury is not good for the use of high ethical and theological disputation."

As George Eliot protests against the narrow use of the word "moral" to denote in life a man who is blameless in his family relations, so I would protest against the narrow use of the word "moral" to denote in literature books that ignore the existence of passion and the breaking of marriage vows. A novel may have nothing objectionable about it, so far as its love affairs go, and yet be a thoroughly immoral book. For morality includes the whole of life—not simply one relation. Humanity is broader than sex—and all of our relations to each other as men and women are moral relations. So the moral novel, it seems to me, must deal truly with the whole of life. A good example, drawn from the chromo-literature of the past but still popular with the uncultivated reader, of a book which confuses our moral judgment, is Augusta Evans' *At the mercy of Tiberius.* The hero, a lawyer, causes an innocent young girl to be arrested for murder. The evidence against her was so overwhelming that the lawyer would have been a gross derelict to duty had he *not* arrested her. Yet in a lava-torrent of invective which confuses right and wrong, he is pictured to us as the blackest of villains. As a more recent example of this kind of novel, and one of more literary merit, take Mrs. Ward's *Marriage à la mode.* This sharp indictment of our American divorce laws is a novel with a distinctly ethical purpose; one "smells the tract" before covering many pages, but whatever one may believe about divorce, and equally good people differ, the first thing that strikes the reader in this story after, perhaps, its note of panic, is its shallowness and confusion of issues. For instance, it leaves absolutely out of the question the right of the child, so eloquently insisted upon by Ellen Key in her *Century of the child,* to be well born. Had Daphne any right to go on bringing children into the world to call "father" a man

who had married her without love, because her fortune afforded him an easy means of self-support, and who, when she left him, had not sufficient moral stamina to remain decent, but yielded at once to dissipation? Daphne did not leave her husband for any such lofty motive as the heredity of possible children, but for purely selfish reasons. Yet this does not prove that she should have stayed with him. A good deed (good, that is, in its results) may be done from wrong motives. Parents *might* have refused lobster à la Newburg to a baby, because it was expensive and they wanted the money to go to the theater. One may condemn their selfishness without implying that the baby should have had the lobster! So with Daphne—one may condemn her without drawing Mrs. Ward's conclusion. Better arguments against divorce might be found than the dictum that a woman should cling to a man who had traded on her love to live in luxury, because he was too weak to stand alone!

Then, too, a book which preaches, openly or tacitly, "Get rich, honestly if you can—but get rich anyhow—that's the main thing," is an immoral book. Chester's *Get-rich-quick Wallingford* stories are surely open to question on this score.

"One of the most potent vehicles of moral downfall of any kind," says Mr. Bostwick in his *Librarian as a censor,* "is the impression that everybody does it. . . . The man who steals from his employer, or who elopes with his neighbor's wife is nine times out of ten, a willing convert to this view. A book that conveys such an idea is really more dangerous than one which openly advocates wrongdoing." [1]

Or a novel may treat of love and allow its heroine no slip, and yet be what I call immoral. For an instance of this take *Pamela.* "Pamela, under temptation," says Richardson, "persevered in the path of virtue, therefore my book is a moral book." Not so.

As a certain critic has aptly phrased it, Pamela's virtue consisted in holding out for a higher price. "Hold out and he may marry you," is its most obvious moral. There is a subtle immorality in this. The teaching "Be good and you'll be rewarded with a coronet," does more harm than all the coarseness of *Tom Jones.* The sinful woman in the *Scarlet letter* is a healthier companion than the blameless Pamela. It is not the conduct of the heroine which determines the morality of the book.

[1] Library journal. 33: 261. July, 1908.

What then does determine morality, used in the broader sense of the world? What is an immoral novel? I have already defined it as a book that leaves us worse than it found us. But just how does a novel accomplish our undoing? I think there are several ways.

1. The book may make a direct appeal to our lower nature. Here I would include novels written to pander to race prejudice the lust for wealth; novels that enthrone the animal over the spiritual nature, setting passion above principle, even to the point of exalting passion into a rule of life. There is a class of books outside the pale of literature which aims directly to debase. Some of these books are sold on trains, kept on newsstands and may be found in the circulating libraries maintained by some stores. It seems to me, however, that there are few books amongst those making any pretense to literary art, that and hatred, such as some of Thomas Dixon's; novels that glorify deserve to be included in this class. Zola surely does not. When he debases it is incidental, he is not deliberately aiming at that. He is trying to make a scientific study of human nature. He violates good taste and sound morality—just how, I will try to define later—but he is not immoral in the sense of making a deliberate attempt to degrade his reader.

2. The novel harms us when it confuses right and wrong. The book which does this may be quite respectable, it may contain nothing obviously offensive and yet it may be an immoral book.

The lines which separate vice and virtue may not be clearly drawn. Our moral vision may be a little blurred. Some readers place Gilbert Parker's *Right of way* and Meredith's *Lord Ormont* under this category. Some would place Herrick's *Together* and Tinayre's *Shadow of love* in this class, arguing that in these two books the heroine's fall is glossed over and made little of.

Balzac, Flaubert and Tolstoi, whose books are full of unpleasant details, never confuse our moral sense. Balzac sees life whole, life in its sins and follies as well as in its nobility, but his keen critical analysis never confuses good and evil. In Flaubert's *Mme. Bovary,* so often singled out as a bad book, vice and virtue are never confounded, our sympathies are never enlisted on the wrong side. True, the book deals with the love affairs of a married woman, but the picture never allures us

for an instant. I almost incline to say with Henry James that *Mme. Bovary* would make "the most useful of Sunday school tracts"—for those of a certain age.

Higginson, in his volume of essays entitled *Book and heart,* has an essay on The discontinuance of the guideboard, which every one interested in modern fiction ought to read. He shows very clearly why such books as those just mentioned are popularly supposed to confuse vice and virtue. It is because they are not tagged with a moral. As he expresses it, "they raise no guideboard marked 'Dangerous passing.'" This discontinuance of the guideboard arises, he thinks, from the fact that "fiction is drawing nearer to life." To quote his own words:

"In real life, as we see it, the moral is usually implied and inferential, not painted on a board. . . . The eminent sinner dies amid tears and plaudits, not in the state prison, as he should; the seed of the righteous is often seen begging bread. We have to read very carefully between the lines if we would fully recognize the joy of Marcellus exiled, the secret ennui of Caesar with a senate at his heels. Thus it is in daily life—that is, in nature; and yet many still think it a defect in a story if it leaves a single moral influence to be worked out by the meditation of the reader. On my lending to an intelligent young woman Hamlin Garland's *Main-traveled roads,* she returned it with the remark that she greatly admired all the stories except the first, which seemed to her immoral. It closed as she justly pointed out, with a striking scene in which a long absent lover carries off the wife and child of a successful but unworthy rival, and the tale ends with the words: 'The sun shone on the dazzling, rustling wheat; the fathomless sky as a sea bent over them, and the world lay before them.' But when I pointed out to her, what one would think must be clear at a glance to every reader, that behind this momentary gleam of beauty lay an absolutely hopeless future; that though the impulse of action was wholly generous, and not even passional, yet Nemesis was close behind; and that the mere fact of the woman's carrying another man's baby in her arms would prevent all permanent happiness with her lover; my friend could only reply that it was very true, but she had never thought of it. In other words, the guideboard was not there. The only thing that could have disarmed her criticism would have been a distinct announcement on the author's part: 'N. B.—The situation is dangerous;' just as Miss Edgeworth used to append to every particularly tough statement: 'N.

B.—This is a fact.' . . . The same misjudgment is often passed for the same reason upon Tolstoi's *Anna Karenina,* which surely is among all books upon this same theme, the most utterly relentless. Not merely does it not contain, from beginning to end, a prurient scene or even a voluptuous passage, but its plot moves as inexorably as a Greek fate. Even Hawthorne allows his guilty lovers, in the *Scarlet letter,* a moment of delusive happiness; even Hawthorne recognizes the unquestionable truth that the foremost result of a broken law is sometimes an enchanting sense of freedom. Tolstoi tolerates no such enchantment; and he has written the only novel of illicit love, perhaps, in which the offenders—both being persons otherwise high-minded and noble—fail to derive from their sin one hour of even temporary happiness. . . . Yet *Anna Karenina* has often been condemned as immoral, in the absence of the guideboard." [2]

Leslie Stephen emphasizes the same point when he writes:

"The highest morality of a work of art depends upon the power with which the essential beauty and ugliness of virtue and vice are exhibited by an impartial observer. The mortality, for example, of Goethe and Shakespeare appears in the presentation of such characters as Iago and Mephistopheles. The insight of true genius shows us by such examples . . . what is the nature of the man who has lost all faith in virtue and all sympathy with purity and nobility of character. The artist of inferior rank tries to make us hate vice by showing that it comes to a bad end . . . but he does not exhibit the moral disintegration which is the underlying cause of the misfortune, and which may be equally fatal, even if it happens to evade the penalty."

3. A book may neither appeal to our worse selves, nor fail to distinguish good from evil, and may yet be so *untrue to life* as to be immoral. Truth is the cornerstone of virtue, for without that as a foundation, courage, honor, love—all that makes life best worth the living—is impossible. An atmosphere of untruth, whether created by the people with whom we associate, or by the books which we read, can not but injure us. Among books that hurt us by their untruth to life, one would not of course include those creations of pure fancy which do not pretend to picture life as it is. The fairy tale, the tale of pure adventure, such as Stevenson's *Treasure island,* are creations of the imagination with no relation to real life. They are neither

[2] Book and heart. p. 3-5.

moral nor immoral, but just unmoral, save in the broad sense in which anything that gives us legitimate and harmless amusement may be called moral, for without amusement we cannot be truly sane.

The impossible story must, however, remain in the air, in the realm of the impossible; the mixture of the fantastic and the realistic is neither art nor life. J. A. Mitchell's story, *Gloria victis,* will illustrate what I mean by this mixture of the realistic and the impossible. The hero is a boy whose mother has run away with her lover, and whose father is a commercial sharper. He naturally inherits many evil tendencies. For a time he is taken into the family of a clergyman whose daughter is unhappily married. The boy, moved by a wish to secure the happiness of those who have been so kind to him, pushes the daughter's husband over a cliff, one day, when they are out hunting together and kills him. Surprised at the effect upon the family of this murder, dictated solely by his kindness of heart, the boy runs away and joins a circus. Later, he falls in love with a girl who performs on the trapeze. He has inherited from his mother an ungovernable temper. In a fit of passion he strikes and kills the woman he loves. At this juncture, the Lord Jesus appears in the guise of a carpenter and brings the girl to life that the hero may have a chance to experience wedded bliss. The first part of the story is a realistic description of a street gamin almost minus a moral nature; the latter part is pure fairy tale. I think you will all agree with me that this mixture of the imaginative and the real results in a false, unhealthy story. Of course I do not mean to imply that the imagination plays no part in the construction of the novel of real life. I believe there can be no true novel of real life through which there does not shine the light of artistic imagination. All I wish to insist upon here is that a novel which pretends to be a picture of life must be consistent with itself.

Putting aside, then, the purely imaginative tale as legitimate, the novels of real life may be untrue in several ways.

a Through an impossible psychology. A good instance of this is Mrs. Burnett's *Lady of quality.* Clorinda may do her best to make us believe in her reality, we cannot help the lurking suspicion that, like the children at their play, she is only "pretending." She never was, and never will be, outside that novel. I do not mean to deny that a woman may rise from a fall strong

in repentance and right purpose. It is not true that for one sin only is there no redemption. But Clorinda never repents. Brought up among her father's low boon companions, she leads a wild life with them. Suddenly she determines to make herself into a respected woman. To hide her past from her future husband she becomes involved in a scene with her former lover, Sir John Oxon, which ends in her striking him dead with a heavy whip. Clorinda did not mean to hit so hard, but one feels that she is more relieved than troubled by the event as she calmly conceals the corpse under the sofa, and proceeds with her afternoon reception. She is held up to us ever after as a sweet saint, pedestaled upon the ruins of the Ten Commandments, and reverenced by all who knew her. Now this is a psychological impossibility. A woman might emerge from such experiences strong and pure, but her way would lie through agony of soul, and she would always carry the scars of her early life.

To take a more recent example, Trevenna's *Arminel of the West,* written perhaps to show the danger of the "sheltered life" method of bringing up a girl, seems to me psychologically untrue.

Two still more recent psychologically impossible heroines are Robert Chambers's Valerie in his *Common law* and Owen Johnson's Dodo in his *Salamander.* Now that the hue and cry over the *Common law* has ceased and librarians who helped to advertise this mediocre story by condemning it, have all decided whether to admit the book to the library or to exclude it, it is possible to state calmly some good reasons for its exclusion. It is psychologically untrue, insincere and vulgar. In speaking of its vulgarity, I am not finding fault with the opening chapter describing Valerie's first experience as a model—that was done with decency and restraint—but with the atmosphere of the book as a whole. The girl that Chambers assures us Valerie is could not have done the things which Chambers assures us she did. He tried to write a novel at once sufficiently *risqué* to catch one class of readers and sufficiently proper to attract another class. This was as difficult a feat as it would be to advocate simultaneously the candidacy of Mr. Debs and Mr. Wilson. Chambers's art suffered in the attempt.

The *Salamander,* in spite of a certain cleverness, is more untrue to life and more vulgar than the *Common law.* A young girl like Dodo, who pays neither in work nor with herself for the elaborate dinners, the orchids, the fine clothers that she gets

by playing on the passions of men, married and unmarried, exciting the companions of her pleasure-loving life to the danger point, but always managing to secure safety and luxury for herself, is not likely, to put it mildly, to reform a man, and to emerge unscathed from the fires of passion with which she has played, a good wife and mother. That she is technically "pure" counts for little, because she has debased her soul and endangered the souls of others for a mess of pottage.

Yet there are readers who call Valerie a "sweet girl," and find no fault with either Robert Chambers's or Owen Johnson's ethics, but whose individual hairs (at least such of them as are rooted in their own heads) would stand on end at the thought of M. E. Francis's *Story of Mary Dunne* or of Reginald Kauffman's *House of bondage.*

The *House of bondage* is horrible. So is a surgical operation. But Kauffman never confuses moral issues nor describes evil for the sake of rolling it as a sweet morsel under his tongue. It is a clean-cut, unsentimental picture, drawn with the restraint of art, of conditions that are poisoning our civilization. It is a powerful tract rather than a novel. Perhaps the word tract is a misnomer, for Kauffman does no direct preaching. He lets the facts preach. It is not a book for young boys and girls who lead sheltered lives. It *is* a book for young people exposed to the dangers of which it treats, and for adults. Here then is a book whose subject matter is loathesome, but whose truth to life is unquestioned and whose trend is distinctly ethical. No one can read it and doubt that the wages of sin is death.

The *Story of Mary Dunne* tells us of the kidnapping of an innocent young Irish girl who went alone to Liverpool to work. It exposes the horror of the white slave traffic without picturing to the imagination its terrible details. Here again, in spite of its subject matter, is a book psychologically possible and ethically sound.

b By one-sidedness. It may fail to observe the truth of proportion. And just here lies Zola's greatest offense; not in that he sometimes bids us to walk along muddy ways, but that our eyes are forced downward until we see nothing but the mud. The blue sky is blotted out for us; the sun no longer shines for us; only the black, slimy mud is real. As Countess Tolstoi has said of some recent writers, we are invited "to examine the decomposed corpse of human degradation and to close our eyes

to God's wonderful, vast world, with the beauties of nature, with the majesty of art, with the lofty yearnings of the human soul." Now such a treatment of life is false. The sunset is as real as the mud puddle, virtue is as true as vice, and the book which dwells upon evil to the exclusion of good is as damnably false to life as the book which denies the existence of good. Such an author defeats his own end. His black is not so black to our eyes as it would be had he pictured it on a background of shining whiteness.

Tolstoi gives us an example of the same thing in the *Kreutzer sonata,* and Hamlin Garland in his *Rose of Dutcher's Coolly.* People tell us that these books are true. So they are, up to a certain point, and therein lies their greatest harm. They are of the company of those "half truths" which are "ever the worst of lies." They emphasize one side of man's nature out of all proportion to the other. They lack a horizon.

c By morbidness. Perhaps this morbidness is but another phase of the one-sidedness of which I have spoken. A good example of this is the leaden pessimism of Olive Schreiner's *Story of an African farm,* the disgusting horrors of Nesbit's *House with no address,* which unlike the gruesome tales of Poe, affords no keen intellectual delight, or the abnormal eroticism of Le Gallienne's *Golden girl* or of Hardy's *Jude the obscure.* I suppose that Mr. Hardy would tell us that Sue and Jude are true to life. Perhaps so; but to a phase of life so uncommon and so diseased as to find its proper place and treatment in medicine rather than in fiction. They are untrue to the normal life of men and women. Their sadness is not "the pleasant and the tonic sadness, always brave, never hysterical," of which Stevenson approves. As for Le Gallienne, like others of the "exotic, erotic, tommyrotic school of fiction," he sets us sighing for the days of Fielding. There is a manly and an unmanly way even of being nasty.

Another novel which might be placed both in the morbid and the one-sided classes is Karin Michaelis's *Dangerous age.* The author has taken as a type of the middle-aged woman, a woman who married without love and never bore a child, who was from the beginning shallow, selfish and over-emotional. That woman exists. We have all met her and we do not want to meet her a second time. But she is not the norm for the woman of forty-five.

d By falseness to the facts of life. Julie P. Smith, of Connecticut, author of *Kiss and be friends, The married belle* and many other pleasing (?) tales, is never, so far as I know, called immoral. Personally, I think books such as her *Lucy* most hurtful. Lucy has been forced to earn her living in a store. Mr. Ramestone, an old bachelor, who lives with his sister, and thinks a business life destructive of all that is holiest in woman, engages her as a servant. When the sister happens to be away, Lucy is bidden to take off her cap and apron, and sit at table with her master, who ventures upon little familiarities with her, finally makes decided love to her, asks her to marry him, and presents her with a magnificent diamond necklace. Could anything be more absurd? More untrue to life? A girl at service who might be influenced by that book to encourage a man's familiarities, would have a rude awakening when she found that however those things might be arranged in the world of Julie P. Smith, in the world of live men and women, neither marriage nor diamonds would be her reward. This book is false to life, written in poor English, vulgar in treatment, but it must be considered *moral,* forsooth, because it does not mention a woman or a man—who is a "sinner"! And yet when it is proposed to give the high school girl, who probably is reading trash like this, a truly moral book, a book that kindles thought and inspires to noble feeling, that braces rather than enervates the mind—Victor Hugo's *Les misérables*—a Philadelphia school committee (with the exception of one woman) cry, "Out upon it—it mentions a grisette. It is a corrupting book!" And they vote it out of their schools. There is greater danger in a false picture of life than in the admission of certain true, but disagreeable, facts. Daniel G. Thompson, in his *Philosophy of fiction,* says:

"The 'sheltered life' theory as to both girls and boys is carried altogether too far, knowledge must come some time; better that it be acquired naturally and accurately when it is sought rather than to have formed in the mind a wrong 'illusion' of life, as M. de Maupassant calls it, by a process of that *suppressio veri* which is to the young a *suggesto falsi.*"[8]

Walter Bagehot while admitting that the "indiscriminate study of human life" is not desirable for young women, speaks of the "serious evil" of the "habitual formation of a scheme of thought and a code of morality upon incomplete materials," in these

[8] Philosophy of fiction. p. 179.

terms: "The readers for whose sake the omissions are made cannot fancy what is left out. Many a girl of the present day reads novels, and nothing but novels; she forms her mind by them, as far as she forms it by reading at all. . . . They form her idea of the world, they define her taste, and modify her morality; not so much in explicit thought and direct act, as unconsciously and in her floating fancy. How is it possible to convince such a girl, especially if she is clever, that on most points she is all wrong? . . . She has a vivid picture of a *patch* of life."[4]

"Surely," says Mr. Bostwick, "we have outlived the idea that innocence and ignorance are the same thing. 'You can't touch pitch,' says the proverb, 'and not be defiled.' Granted; yet we may look at pitch, or any other dirt, and locate it, without harm; nay, we must do so if we want to keep out of it."[5]

H. A. Vachell's *Blinds down* is a telling account of what is likely to happen when one denies the existence of the unsavory facts of life.

Many books which are glaringly untrue to life may injure us in another way—may lower our mental and moral tone by vulgarity of treatment, like Phillips's *Old wives for new,* or Rex Beach's *Auction block,* by over-sentimentality, like E. P. Roe's novels; or by the lack of any element which stimulates thought (there are not pages enough at my disposal to cite all the good illustrations of this!) A good recent example of the slushy and debilitating novel—the spineless literature of warm and damp affection—is Florence Barclay's *Through the postern gate.* It oozes love on every page—the love of a middle-aged woman for a boy whom she finally marries. We must not, however, confuse questions of morals with questions of taste. This is emphasized by Mr. Bostwick, who tells us in his *Librarian as a censor* that "some books full of impropriety, or even of indecency, are absolutely unimpeachable from a moral standpoint." Also, there is an outspokenness which neither betokens in the author nor cultivates in the reader a low tone of mind, and there is a plainness of speech which reveals a mind tinctured with vulgarity, or worse. As to Roe, a woman who had been for years a teacher of young girls, once told me that she thought the morbid sentimentality of his novels had the worst possible

[4] Literary studies. v. 2, p. 121.
[5] Librarian as a censor. Library journal. 33: 260. July, 1908.

influence upon growing girls. There is a time in a girl's life when any and every side of her nature should be appealed to rather than the emotional, which is just then in danger of losing its balance. Then thought should be stimulated, the powers of judgment strengthened, while the latent morbid emotion is left to starve. As to those books commonly called "harmless," they are *not* harmless in so far as they weaken us mentally. Our muscles, unused, grow weak. So do our minds. It is immoral to bolt down book after book which tend to make us incapable of continuous mental effort. To quote George Birkbeck Hill:[6]

"But grievous tho his (Fielding's) failings were, he did not add one more to them. He never degrades the intellect. . . . I could wish to see no young girl read *Tom Jones* or even *Joseph Andrews*. . . . But I would rather see her reading Fielding, who would teach her much that is good, who would train her in wit and in the knowledge of some of the best qualities of the heart, than the works of many modern female novelists . . . whose views of life are as low and base as the style in which they write, and as inaccurate as their English; and who have neither wit, nor humor, nor sense, nor learning, nor knowledge to throw into the scale as a balance to the vast weight of unworthy qualities which they have heaped upon the other side. . . . They leave those who indulge in them intellectually unfit for any work which requires sustained thought. They are the dramshop keepers of the world of letters."

And Charles Dudley Warner says:[7]

"Bad art in literature is bad morals. I am not sure but the so-called domestic, the diluted, the 'goody,' namby-pamby, unrobust stories, which are so largely read by schoolgirls, young ladies and women, do more harm than the 'knowing,' audacious, wicked ones, also, it is reported, read by them. . . . For minds enfeebled and relaxed by stories lacking even intellectual fiber are in a poor condition to meet the perils of life. . . . They (novels of domestic life) are called moral; in the higher sense they are immoral, for they tend to lower the moral tone and stamina of every reader."

It follows then from all this that the question of morality is largely a question of *treatment* rather than of *subject-matter.* True, there are a few subjects that a good art, as well as a good

[6] Writers and readers. p. 79.
[7] Relation of literature to life. p. 140, 159.

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morality, would abandon to the doctor or to the professional psychologist. Art is selective, not photographic, and the novelist an artist, who must exercise his power of selection.

Mrs. Deland, in her lecture upon *The value of the novel,* says:

> "True things never defile;
> *Facts* may:
> But truth is the *soul* of the *facts.*"

If we are to understand by this that the knowledge of disagreeable facts cannot harm us if we keep fast hold of the spiritual side of life, and view these facts in their proper relation to the whole, I think we must assent to the proposition. It does not matter much into how deep a gulf of the knowledge of sin and sorrow we plunge, if we rise out of it with a deepened sense of the noble possibilities of human nature, with an intellect quickened in its thoughts upon life, a soul sweetened by a truer sympathy with men and women and more alive to help them, a glimpse of the divine sunshine which lightens the shadiest places of this world. This difference in the treatment of a subject makes all the difference between a good book and a bad one. Take the subject of an illicit love—Henry James says of one of the books of that master of style, Guy de Maupassant, that it pictures "a world where every man is a cad and every woman a harlot." Such a book must demoralize. Daudet's *Sappho* deals with similar facts, but it does not confuse our perception of good and evil. The sin works itself out to its natural and tragic end—the ruin of character. Hawthorne's *Scarlet letter* rises to greater heights and deals with sin in a way that inspires us, because it gives us a glimpse of the divine possibility of the redemption of a soul that has strayed. So long as we remember that man has a soul, and treat life from the soul's point of view, we are pretty safe in treating what phase of life we will. Note the difference between some of Gorky's earliest translated stories and his *Mother.* In the former we get unrelieved brutality; in the latter there are enough disagreeable facts, but we gain a horizon, we watch the growth of a human soul.

Practically, we all admit, when the novel is not in question, that morality depends upon the treatment of a subject rather than upon the subject itself. I need only instance, with Vernon Lee, the distinction we make between poetry and prose. She

says, that the same public which welcomes *Aurora Leigh, Measure for measure, Othello, Cymbeline,* and *The ring and the book* would have nothing to do with a novelist who should develop the same themes as frankly in prose. Is not this largely because poetry treats of a subject in a more elevated style? Another case in point is that of the Bible. Most of us are not given to calling the plain-spokenness of the Biblical writers immoral.

A novel may be true, may deal nobly with life, yet to one person it will be a moral, to another an immoral book. For by immoral, I mean *hurtful,* and the hurtfulness of a book depends partly upon qualities inherent in the book, and partly upon the tone of mind to which the book is brought. Then, too, what seems moral to one generation will not seem so to another. Morality is not absolute but relative. It varies from age to age. Man has always felt within him the imperative—"Thou shalt do good and not evil," but the determination of what *was* good and what *was* evil has sorely perplexed him and his views have changed with the changing centuries. Usury, which meant in its old signification the taking of any interest, was, in Old Testament times, a deadly sin. "Who shall dwell in thy holy hill?" says the Psalmist, "He that putteth not out his money to usury . . ."[8] Cicero mentions that Cato, when asked what he thought of usury, turned upon his questioner with a query as to what *he* thought of murder?[9] Then came a time when the receipt of interest seriously burdened no one's conscience. Today, the Socialists have returned to the older point of view. Slavery was at first a necessity, was right. Bagehot argues that mankind could progress only by having a leisure class, who were not brutalized by overwork, but had time for thought. He holds that in early times, when the soil was free to all, this was only obtainable by the enslavement of some. But in the nineteenth century slavery had become a sin to be wiped out in blood. Now just as actions may be moral in one age, and immoral in another, so may books. The vulgar frankness of *Tom Jones* was not hurtful in the day in which it was written. Fielding said of it, as you know, that there was "nothing in it to offend the chastest ear." On the other hand the brutal coarseness of certain novels of today is immoral because it is self-conscious. Maurice Thompson puts this matter well in speaking of art: "Nakedness, physical and

[8] Psalms, xv:i, v.
[9] Encyclopædia Britannica, art. Usury.

spiritual, in art was a sincere reflex of Greek religion, Greek civilization. It was unconsciously projected. Not so with us; when we go naked it is done self-consciously, with the full understanding that nakedness is not decent."[10]

The idea of what constitutes morality differs, not only in different ages, but in different countries. For instance, with us, virtue—in a woman—means purity, while in Japan, a good girl places obedience to parents above personal purity, and the fact that she has sold herself to a life of shame for their maintenance, does not necessarily debar her from marriage.[11] Now where national ideas of virtue are so different, the tone of the literature will be different, and a book which is moral judged by the standards of one country becomes immoral in another.

Then, too, in every country we find people in different stages of progress, who will therefore vary in their notions of morality. Brooklyn, years ago, had a superintendent of schools, or member of the Board of Education, who was stirred to the depths of his soul by the recitation in our public schools of such an immoral poem as Longfellow's *Building of the ship!* His objection was based upon the fact that the ship was pictured as leaping "into the ocean's arms," and that Longfellow went on to say:

> "How beautiful she is! How fair
> She lies within those arms, that press
> Her form with many a soft caress
> Of tenderness and watchful care."

And probably less than fifty years ago, an American divine could write thus of Scott:

"But, say you, has my author ever read Byron and Moore, Hume and Paine, Scott, Bulwer and Cooper? Yes, he has read them all with too much care. He knows every rock and every quicksand; and he solemnly declares to you that the only good which he is conscious of ever having received from them is a deep impression that men who possess talents of such compass and power, and so perverted in their application, must meet the day of judgment under a responsibility which would be cheaply removed by the price of a world. . . ."[12]

"Robert Hall found the moral tales of Miss Edgeworth de-

[10] Ethics of literary art, p. 28.

[11] Bacon, Japanese girls, p. 217; Norman, Real Japan, p. 179, 293; Knapp, Feudal and mediaeval Japan, p. 167; Curtis, Yankees of East, v. 2, p. 506; Griffis, Mikado's empire, p. 556; Finck, Lotos-time, p. 89, 285.

[12] Appleton, v. 8, p. 348-49.

basing. Thompson tells us that *Jane Eyre* was pronounced too immoral to be ranked as decent literature; George Eliot's *Adam Bede* was characterized as the 'vile outpourings of a lewd woman's mind'; and Mrs. Browning's *Aurora Leigh* was described as the 'hysterical indecencies of an erotic mind.'" [13] It was predicted of Bret Harte's *Luck of Roaring Camp* that its immorality would kill the magazine which printed it. It must also be remembered that as the same book may help one person and hurt another, so it may hurt one person at one age and help him at another; that there are books that while not healthy food for growing girls and boys, may have only an ennobling influence on those of mature years.

After all, the main test of a book is the personal one: How does it affect *me?* There are undoubtedly some books of which it may be said that they are always harmful; to every one at every age, in every time. But of the great majority we can only say that we must pick and choose our friends in the book world just as we do in the real world, not looking for perfection in books any more than we do in people, but choosing those that are akin to us, and that help rather than hurt us. There are people who rasp us, people who debase us, and there are people whose mere presence in the room makes us saner and happier. And so with books. "For the moral tendency of books," says Ruskin, "no such practised sagacity is needed to determine that. The sense, to a healthy mind, of being strengthened or enervated by reading is just as definite and unmistakable as the sense to a healthy body, of being in fresh or foul air." [14] So if the air be fresh, let us not be too particular about the style of furniture in the room, nor insistent that there shall be upon the wall a sign distinctly stating the percentage of oxygen in the air. If the soul of the book be true and noble, let us not condemn it because it tells of an unmarried mother like Mrs. Gaskell's *Ruth* or Alice Brown's *Thyrza* or of a man in love with a married woman, like James Lane Allen's *Choir invisible.* A librarian once told me that he excluded from his library all books in which a man ran away with another man's wife, but this does not seem a wise line of exclusion! Rosina Vokes, in one of her plays, used to sing a little song, the refrain of which ran:

"But what matter what you do,
So your heart be true?"

[13] Philosophy of fiction, p. 191.
[14] Fors Clavigera, v. 8, p. 7.

And so with the novelist. What does it matter of what he writes so that his heart be true to the finer possibilities in human nature? Says Masefield:

> "God dropped a spark down into everyone,
> And if we find and fan it to a blaze,
> It'll spring up and glow, like—like the sun,
> And light the wandering out of stony ways." [15]

The book which degrades our intellect, vulgarizes our emotions, kills our faith in our kind and in the Eternal Power, not ourselves, which makes for righteousness, is an immoral book; the book which stimulates thought, quickens our sense of humor, gives us a deeper insight into men and women, a finer sympathy with them, and a firmer belief in their power to realize the divine ideal, is a moral book, let its subject-matter have as wide a range as life itself.

[15] Everlasting mercy and The widow in the Bye street. 1913. p. 220-21.

THE SELECTION OF FICTION FOR A SMALL LIBRARY

In an address on "Fiction-readers and Libraries," John Cotton Dana says that "the librarian is a public servant, appointed primarily not as a censor but as a distributor of books. He is employed to supply, but within certain limits, the books the people ask for. What are the limits? The people wish novels . . . which novels shall be given them?" No library can buy all, and the following article by Agnes Van Valkenburgh contains some sound advice based on her own practical experience in the Milwaukee Public Library. The writer, then cataloger of that library, read it before the Wisconsin State Library Association, February 23, 1897.

Agnes Van Valkenburgh was connected with the Milwaukee, Wis. Public Library for several years as head of the Catalog Department. From Milwaukee, she went to New York City, where for five years she was a member of the faculty of the Library School of the New York Public Library, and for two years was connected with the staff of The H. W. Wilson Company. She then went to Bay City, Michigan, as librarian of the public library, and remained there until her death in 1919.

Of all the problems which confront the newly appointed librarian, the selection of works of fiction is one of the most perplexing.

In each community is the scholar who thinks that all fiction should be excluded from your shelves, only solid reading for the immortal mind should be placed before old and young, that they may grow in knowledge, forgetting that we have an eternity in which to grow wise.

Then there is the crank who thinks because fiction is a work of the imagination, to read it is to encourage lying. In the beautiful works of nature and the masterpieces of truthful literature there is enough to read without filling the mind with stories which have no foundation in fact, yet it never occurs to him to think how many true things there are which are not spoken of, and which he would be very loath to offer to a friend to read.

There is the man (always a man) who wants nothing put in the library but Dickens and Thackeray, as there are no good novelists but these, and what is the use in spending your money for anything but the best?

If you escape these, there is the woman (always a woman) who wants nothing but fiction; of that, only the very latest, and the more it is condemned the more she wants it.

Happy is the librarian who has not a representative of one of these classes on her board; if she has, prayer and fasting are of no avail, and she must set herself tactfully to their education by bringing them to state conventions, etc., where they will hear these things discussed and get good to their souls.

The one thing a newly organized library must have is popularity, for on that depends its support. The principal thing the average person wants at a library is fiction, therefore get fiction. You may have never so good a selection of theology and history, but if you cannot supply the demand for a good story, the interest will dwindle and die; so get novels and plenty of them.

It is impossible to make a hard and fast rule about the selection, as so many things enter into the problem. A town newly started, with a population half foreigners, would want a very different class of books from a college town; but this one thing you must do: study the people and get what they will read.

Perchance your public may in time be trained to want only the best, but in the beginning they must be taken as they are; and if they are still in the state where E. P. Roe fills them with joy, let them have Roe until you can gradually educate them through Mrs Barr, Crawford and Howells to Henry James, the acme of fine style and stupid story.

The greatest help in the selection of books for a library just starting is the list compiled by our friend Mr Hutchins, and

published by the Wisconsin library commission. This is most excellent, for it includes no dull books, and gives prices and best editions, so that you may not be at the mercy of an unscrupulous bookseller who wants to get rid of old stock at the highest market price.

Next to this is the A. L. A. catalog of 5,000 best books, selected for the model library at the World's fair. This may be obtained free of charge from the Commissioner of education at Washington. A very helpful list is the List of books for girls and women, for sale by the Library Bureau, which gives good critical notices of 250 English and American novelists and their principal works.

Do not think it necessary to buy sets of anything; very few authors write so uniformly well that all their books are equally desirable. Get two or three of the best, and if the others are called for, get them as the demand warrants.

After the library is fairly started and has demonstrated its right to be, the fiction question becomes more complicated; for from the thousands of books coming annually from the press, what shall we choose? To answer this question it is necessary for the librarian to have some helps, that she may know what is worth buying.

Among the trade journals, first comes The Publishers' weekly, which contains short notes on nearly all the new books. Next are the literary journals,The Critic, Dial, Literary News, and Bookman; all are good. The Nation and The Outlook have reliable notices. To the librarian who wants to keep abreast of the times and has not much money, is recommended The Book News, which is published monthly by John Wanamaker, of Philadelhpia, at 50 cents a year. This has very good criticisms and is unprejudiced, as it is not intended to advertise the books of any one publisher. It is well to read the weekly reviews of new books in the newspapers, but it does not do to rely on these entirely.

Most publishers issue monthly lists of their own books or such as they will supply, and are glad to send these to any library upon application. It is a very good idea to encourage your patrons to ask for such books as they want, subject always to the action of the book committee of your board, which is your easiest means of escape in case of an important patron and an undesirable book.

I do not think that Mr Emerson could have had us in mind when he said, Buy no book which is not a year old. Perchance the book which is exciting talk today may not please the fickle fancy of the public tomorrow; but while it is talked about, have at least one copy, unless it is bad either morally or from a literary point of view. If on opening a book at random you read that Angelina leaned on her alabaster hand and gazed soulfully into the midnight orbs of her adoring Edward, it is safe to conclude that you do not want it. The question of immorality in books is a very trying one in this age of the sex novel.

The small library must circulate each book many times to supply the demand, so a bad book in such a place will be read by more people, and so do more harm than in a large one; therefore it is perhaps better to err on the side of being too careful about putting a doubtful novel on your shelves.

There is one mistake which many librarians make, in only buying books once or twice a year. Usually some arrangement can be made by means of which a small sum of money may be left in the librarian's hands to buy such books as may be much desired between times.

A small bookseller once wrote to a library, wishing them to send him a list of all the books they would buy for the coming year, as he wished to bid on them. That is just about as reasonable as to expect a librarian to supply the demand for current fiction, when books are bought only at long intervals.

If you can afford to take an extra copy or two of the leading magazines for circulation, these, bound promptly, help out the fiction wants and are much appreciated by the public.

Above all things do not be afraid of increasing your fiction circulation. It is difficult to understand why it is not just as legitimate to read for entertainment and amusement as for information. If a truthful list of the books read during the past year by this learned and distinguished company were made, would not more than 60 per cent be fiction? Why, then, should we object to having other people do what we do ourselves?

So let us give them stories, as good ones as we can get them to read to be sure, but something so interesting that they can for the time being forget their work and their worry and live in the blessed world of the imagination.

BOOK SELECTION FOR CHILDREN

It is not so much the books written especially for children, as it is the books written out of the minds which have not lost their childhood, that are to form the body of literature which shall be classics for the young.—*Horace Scudder.*

Originality of concept and distinguished presentation are, after all, the things to be desired. The bread of *books,* not the stones of *juveniles* will make our American children's literature a shining treasure for the future as well as for now.—*Alice I. Hazeltine.*

THE STANDARD OF SELECTION OF CHILDREN'S BOOKS

In a paper written for the New Zealand Association Conference, Auckland, N.Z., April, 1911, by Caroline Burnite (now Mrs. R. R. Walker), then at the head of the Children's Department in the Cleveland Public Library, children are divided into two classes, those who are reading something at least, and those who are reading nothing at all—in other words, children whose reading interest must be aroused and children whose reading interest should be directed. Biographical data will be found in Volume II of this series.

The selection of books for children has been a question under careful study in the progressive libraries of the United States for an indeterminate number of years. A noteworthy list of books for children, compiled by Miss Hewins, librarian of the Hartford Public Library, was published in 1882. It shows a definite viewpoint in both selection and arrangement, as well as the result of personal knowledge of children's books of that day and of guiding children's reading. Its small volume indicates that the larger number of standard books for children have been published since that time. In 1898 a list entitled "References for third grade readers" was published by the Cleveland Public Library and widely used; it represented the combined experience of the use of books by the school and the library. "Reading for the young," by John F. Sargent, a librarian, published in 1890, which was four years in preparation, has been a great influence in the selection of children's books for libraries. In 1900 the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh published a catalog of books for use in schools, the first of several excellent lists published by this library. Of recent years lists embodying the experience and judgment of certain libraries and state library commissions have been published by them, notably the libraries of Brooklyn, Pittsburgh, Pratt Institute,

Cleveland, Utica, and the commissions of Iowa, Oregon, Michigan, Wisconsin. These last named lists are now in general use. They represent the judgment of one person in the main; they vary according to the viewpoint of the final authority in each instance, and this viewpoint is often colored by local conditions, the most potent of which are the racial traits of the readers and the school curriculum. While authorities on juvenile literature do not always agree, there is probably no greater diversity of opinion than in the selection of fiction for adults. No list of children's books has value unless each book has been carefully read by a competent judge and afterwards tested in actual use.

The writer has fuller knowledge of library work with children as conducted in Pittsburgh, New York, Brooklyn, and Cleveland than in other libraries, and in a general way the principles stated in this paper are those consistent with the motives of work of these libraries, each of which is serving a population largely foreign born and of various nationalities. In Cleveland, of the thirty-eight libraries but eight are distinctly American in the class of readers; others of these centers are reaching mainly foreigners, in many of them at most 10 per cent. only of the readers are American, and in some of them not even 1 per cent. are American. This is largely typical of the other cities.

While under such conditions the problem of the American city library must be the development of the foreign child, this does not and should not restrict the library opportunities offered the Anglo-Saxon child.

The aim of work with children in the libraries is primarily to inculcate and foster the habit of reading good books as a pleasurable experience, the reading of good books for children being the first resultant, the reading of good books written for adults being the ultimate resultant. The secondary aim is to assist the teacher in her work of formal education by supplying in various ways reading collateral with the school curriculum. The library is in all instances a distinct municipal institution, as is the school and with its own educational aim. If library work were conducted through the school only it would of course be subservient to the aims of the school. It is obvious that these aims need not conflict, but that they must be relative.

The educational force of the library builds upon something subtle and delicate—the spontaneous and conscious interests of the child. The fact that all library attendance or library use is voluntary on the part of the child, means that the books which are used to attract him must contain what he wants. If they contain the poorest of what he wants, or just anything he wants, the influence of the library as an educational force is minimum. If anything may be said in favor of the library as a mere agent for meeting the interests of the adults without effort toward change or betterment of such interests, no such theory extended to library work with children justifies itself. Library work must be an active influence in the mental progress of the child. In order that it may not be deterrent in such progress, it is evident that it should err rather on the side of conservatism in the inclusion of questionable books for children. A library should not recognize any negative principle such as, "Give the child whatever he wants, in order that he may read nothing worse," but act upon the belief that the most potent intellectual forces are allied with the spiritual, and that it is possible to give a child something which he wants and at the same time strengthen his moral nature through his reading. With such principles as a working basis, there are three essentials in work with children: first, knowledge of classes and types of children; second, knowledge of the appeal to make to classes of children and of books which contain this appeal; third, skill — skill in the application of knowledge.

First. Knowledge of the classes and types of children.

The various classes of children which the American city library reaches may be indicated as follows:

A. Young children whose reading habit is unformed.

B. Older boys and girls who have read little but the school text-books and bits of the daily papers. (A very large percentage of children in new library centers.)

C. Boys and girls whose parents read a large amount of literature of ephemeral interest and who are decidedly influenced by having such books in their homes. (Such children are in great need of library influence. They may be five per cent. of the total number of children reached.))

D. Boys and girls whose reading has been cheap literature containing false views of life. There is not a marked line of division between this class and the preceding; both are

often on the immorality line and frequently beyond it. The difference is that the foregoing has a recognized place given it by a reading but indiscriminating adult public, while this latter literature is generally disapproved traditionally and in the mind of almost every child reader has the added appeal of stolen fruit. (To this class belong a large percentage of children in a neighborhood where library agencies are new. There is a tremendous decrease in interest in this literature after the first year of the work of a library.)

E. Boys and girls who have read for several years from a well-selected library. (A high percentage in the old library centers, but modified by the fact that foreign districts are composed of a large floating population.)

F. Boys and girls whose reading is judiciously guided at home. (These are the children who are least in need of the library as an educational force, but merely as a source of supply. They are probably not one per cent. of the children reached.)

Second. Knowledge of the appeal to make to classes of children.

It is obvious from the classes indicated that there are two main divisions of children, children who are reading something at least, and children who are reading nothing at all; in other words children whose reading interest must be aroused, and children whose reading interest should be directed. In the first division there is the young child and the older unread boy and girl. It is obvious that the formation of the reading habit can be more surely accomplished with the young children, therefore, they should not be excluded from library privileges. Their interests follow closely those of the childhood of the race. The appeal is that of the myth; of the folk tale with its great imagination and subtle ethical quality; of the fable, the tale of familiar incident applied to moral life; of rhythm — verse with terse action such as Mother Goose, poetry which embodies the imagination and actual experiences of a child, as Stevenson, poetry which analogizes the life of the human and divine child such as the lullaby, and verse which embodies a story.

With the older boys and girls who have read little but textbooks, their book interests are usually similar to the young children. Such children often do not have the reading facility of a child four years their junior. It is wise to recognize this

interest in the literature of young children; since the thought is less complex, such children grasp it more fully than literature for older children, and this literature also lays the basis for more diversified interests. They will probably grow out of this period of interest more rapidly than children of the usual years. Next to the younger children this class probably offers the fullest opportunity for the best results.

In the second division, children whose reading interests must be directed, lie many difficult problems. Here are happily the few children whose reading is judiciously guided at home. These children are often interested in the finest literature — the classics; by classics I mean in this connection books which have been proven, those which have been written long enough for men and women of to-day to appreciate their influence upon themselves as children. There are English books, in many instances, which will do much to bring to the children of a far-off land the finest spirit of the mother country; some American books which may show that nobility is not indigenous to soil, but that its seed spreads far and wide. Such books form the finest connection between the juvenile classics and the adult classics, because they contain that balance of feeling and expression which is itself art. Of the boys and girls who have read for several years from a well-selected library little need be said, other than that their interests must be frequently freshened by opening new avenues.

In this division are also the other two classes: boys and girls whose reading has been unsuitable adult books, and those who have been reading cheap literature. These children have no proper reading background. The appeal in the first is that of social life, presented in this literature usually from its artificial side; of the love story, in such books often most sentimental; and these children often become acquainted with the trend of the problematic novel. The solution of handling this class (largely girls) has not yet been worked out. Girls who have formed such a taste are seldom entirely turned into other channels, to a certain extent because the influence is continued in their homes. They can occasionally be brought to read "Jane Eyre," Miss Mulock's stories, "The little minister," "Marjorie Daw." But it is safe to say that these children are never again interested in stories ordinarily thought of as belonging to their years, and which could contribute to their men-

tal development. A large amount of the solution of this problem lies ultimately in arousing the parents to a realization that such literature is unsuitable for children.

Our last consideration is the children who have been reading cheap literature called "nickel libraries" or "dime novels." This class more than any other affects the quality of book selection and requires great skill in the use of the books on the part of the librarian.

For boys these books contain the following appeals:

To patriotism. — Usually in the form of war stories in which intense hatred of the antagonist is the theme; they are often historically true in incident, seldom historically true in spirit. With us they take the form of Revolutionary stories, stories of the Civil War, Indian stories. They foster and engender social prejudice, they are often brutal and distinctly false in ethical quality.

To superstition. — Stories of luck. Probably the most universal characteristic with poor boys is the innate belief in fate, a most potent influence in a boy's attitude toward work. Literature which fosters the definite mental attitude that a boy's success does not depend upon his own efforts, has a very dangerous quality. Such literature is read largely by street boys, and it includes books of diverse interests.

To the spirit of adventure. — These stories have considerable originality and resource. They are composed of a large number of rapidly moving dramatic events, which stunt the mind rather than develop it by not giving opportunity to expand in one situation before presenting another. These books have the effect mentally which passing over a varied landscape at the rate of a hundred and fifty miles an hour has visually. The intrinsic value of any book is its ability to linger in the conscious and subconscious mind. With these books the reader passes through innumerable highly feverish experiences which makes this impossible. The ethical influence is often negative, but not always so.

It is not unusual to hear a well-read individual speak of reading such literature as a boy, with the argument, "They didn't hurt me." It is undoubtedly true that the reader's environment and general influence always contributes in a large degree to the mental attitude he brings to books. The attitude of a boy reader of fairly good reading taste toward such books

is more that of a balanced adult reader towards literature generally—the book and the reader are seldom entirely one. The critical faculty and judgment, while largely subcurrent are nevertheless in place, and with such readers there is lacking that intimacy of experience wherein the danger lies. At most no argument has been advanced that such books are an aid in a boy's development, merely that they are not a detriment.

All of these books contain frequently a sympathetic attitude toward crime and immorality. The danger of suppression by the United States government does much undoubtedly to eliminate the most flagrant use of these qualities; however, it is by no means controlled.

For girls, such books contain views of social life, and the relations of individuals toward one another which are almost entirely false. The love interest is always the theme, envy is usually the mainspring; the scene usually shifts from one of poverty to extreme wealth. They foster in an inexperienced young girl a dangerous trust in strangers and blunt any inherent acumen on the part of the reader as to any possible channels for her own life to work out. Largely, I think, because this class of literature is so entirely a repetition of theme and of situation the thread connecting it with good literature is almost impossible to find. Nearly all girls who read these books do so to the exclusion of any others.

Third: Skill in the application of knowledge:

With a knowledge of the classes of children with whom we have to deal, and the appeals to which they usually respond, how can such knowledge be used in selecting books for children?

With the knowledge of the varied interests and diverse backgrounds which the children of a public library have, the conviction follows that the books themselves must have a wide latitude as literature, varying in merit and of diverse subject interest. That in the contact with children it should be kept in mind that certain classes of children should be expected to read books of a high standard, and that other children read books, certainly in the beginning, of a quality which is only tolerable to the critic. The children who are reading books of high standard are coming in contact with a deep inspirational quality, but for other children the book of high standard may have no inspirational quality at all because he can get no pleasure from reading it.

Referring to the classes stated above, the standard of the selection of books for little children can be and therefore should be very high. There is no need of giving a young child a poor book if the librarian who comes in contact with him has thought out a few simple principles of the selection of books of this class. Felix Adler's "Moral education" is a valuable aid in formulating these principles. With the universality of interest of young children the American lists will probably be found very helpful and a safe guide. Use original versions as a rule rather than modified and pedagogicalized texts. The one main principle in the selection of folk tales is that broadly speaking the mainspring of motive must be true. Young children are mentally passing through the experience of the fairy tale when they read the fairy tale, consequently the motive which actuates it must be a right one. The pictures which illustrate such books must be refined in thought.

The standard of the selection of books for children who are reading books much younger than their years needs to vary in no way from that of the books for the younger children. It should, however, be definitely kept in mind that children at all ages should have their interests diversified, and this is specially an important aim when children are outgrowing the folk tale interest. Unless children are surrounded by books of varied interest at this period they usually develop a liking for but one kind of books, read everything which the library can provide, and may then discontinue reading in the children's room because there can be no continuous supply.

Books for children who have been reading books of questionable value must undoubtedly contain some elements of their developed interest, since the basis of library work with children is necessarily the appeal to a conscious interest. The children's library must be broad enough in its selection to contain something for any child in the given district — any child under fourteen. Beyond this age an unread child's reading facility is so modified by an undeveloped power of concentration that not every child can be caught. Generally speaking, librarians cannot be tutors, they can only be guides.

The principle to go upon in the selection of books for such a class of boys and girls is that the books selected for them should contain such elements of interest in a lesser degree, or as few aggravating features as possible, depending as aids upon

the attractive quality of the make-up of the books, the contact of the librarian with these readers, and the attractive physical features of the library. Love stories may be chosen which reflect social life, but which are pure in sentiment. For the boys, choose stories of patriotism, war stories, etc.—of high dramatic quality which are nearer true historical feeling; stories of poor boys who became successful in which the element of luck may enter, but where at least the boy has done his part; stories of adventure, less crowded with dramatic events, thereby giving larger opportunities for a fuller development towards the climax. Here it is entirely right that such books be used which are not fully satisfactory to the critic, *if they justify their use.* Only a small number of them should be selected, those which can most evidently be used towards a purpose and which *prove* that they can be used towards a purpose. Herein lies the skill of the librarian. These books must be used as a method of gradation of the children's reading, towards still better books of the same interests, and eventually towards books of other interests. War stories which eventually lead to history, stories of success which suggest biography, stories of adventure which lead to travel and exploration, and stories for the girls — here is the unsolved problem! At least we can arouse an interest in dramatic and tragic characters of history — Mary, Queen of Scots, Marie Antoinette, Joan of Arc, James the First of Scotland, and others.

The theme of this paper has related almost entirely to fiction, which forms on the whole about half the reading of all children. The selection of other books for children is just as important but less difficult, since the rules for their selection may follow in a general way those used for the general adult reader — truthfulness, an interesting manner of relation, and an attractive make-up. One special quality must be observed in the selection of history, biography, legend and all other books which have human quality, that they be presented dramatically, *not* from the informational viewpoint, *not* critically and *not* retrospectively. If this principle is applied it will account for the failure of many books to hold the interest of children.

Books which are definitely informational, such as the useful arts and sciences, should be accurate, elementary, and clear. The only fully satisfactory way of selecting them is with the advice of some one who knows about the subject. Through type-

written lists such advice when once made available can be of service to a large number of libraries.

The final summing up is this:

Books must be selected, not picked. They must be read, not looked over. They must be used with the children, not as a rule left on the shelves for their injudicous selection.

The time consumed by the judicious study of a large class of books is a matter of great expense to the library undertaking it, and the result of such labor should be open to all libraries working under conditions which are similar. While the principles underlying the selection of books for children in America can be largely the same as for the children of New Zealand, there must be dissimilar conditions and interests which would not mean in all instances the selection of the same books, or the same subjects. So if at all possible let there be at least one person who may be recognized as bringing to serious study and experimentation breadth of mind and a student's attitude. Several good American lists may be used for study, and individual books tried out, but while it is true that compilers of lists have aimed for diverse interests, a large part of the books are distinctly American in atmosphere.

In closing may I say that it is unfortunate that a tone of didacticism has crept into this paper addressed as it is to an audience of fellow workers. I hope, however, there may be something in the foregoing pages worthy of consideration as applicable to New Zealand conditions, and that at no distant date New Zealand librarians may give the librarians of America the result of their study and experience in the selection of books for children.

THE BEGINNINGS OF A LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN

Another paper by Miss Burnite, read at the Conference of the American Library Association held at Narraganset Pier, R.I., in 1906.

Although it treats primarily of the history of children's literature, indirectly it is of value in this collection because it touches upon the best of the early books in this field.

In studying literature written for children (which is the scope of this paper and not that large class of literature which children have made their own, such as the myth, folklore, legend) we soon see that it is entirely evolutionary, and that it sprang from and was moulded by forces which we would consider upon first thought entirely extraneous to the subject. Thus the first impulse for a children's literature sprang from the religious movements of the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries. Great spirits such as Luther and Watts, in their contemplation of the beauties of spiritual life, saw the exquisite analogy of the divine and human child and the result was the first form of children's literature—the cradle hymn. This analogy has been so universal in the religious lullaby that it may repay us to see what its characteristics are.

"Soft and easy is thy cradle,
Coarse and hard thy Saviour lay"

is Watts' simile in his cradle hymn, which he follows by the most realistic touch in which he gives the vague imaginings and fears of a young child:

"Lo He slumbers in a manger,
Where the horned oxen fed:
Peace, my darling, there's no danger;
There's no ox a'near thy bed."

Like the early religious pictures, in which the child is always directly associated with the Madonna, Watts does not consider

his poem complete without actually picturing the mother. This he does by depicting her feelings.

"Yet to read the shameful story,
How the Jews abused their King,
How they served the Lord of glory
Makes me angry while I sing."

When these early writers wrote their cradle hymns, they discovered childhood, in that they recognized its individuality and appreciated its thoughts and feelings, and from that time there is a literature, created for the children themselves.

The great principle in children's literature is that, in order to catch the child's attention and prompt his belief in the truth of the story, either the theme, incident or illustration must touch the experiences of the child. When this basis of understanding is built upon the child's real world, upon the life around him and what he has experienced through his mind, we call the literature realistic, and when the hymn writers made their appeal to childhood through childhood, they laid the foundation for the realistic school. That this class has a direct ethical value is shown in the Watts' cradle hymn by a child's desire to imitate the Christ-child's acts because of his innate love of beauty and goodness, after his belief in the heroism of the Christ-child has been established through the contrast in their situations. The other class of literature is based upon the child's experiences in the unreal world and chiefly upon his ability to hark back to the experiences of primitive man. For the primitive mind, in its imagings and its search for primal truth, corresponds to that of the child. This literature is based entirely upon the imagination and is called idealistic literature. It is mainly the myth, folklore and legend. For years idealistic literature has received its proper valuation. The literature of realism needs more consideration.

The second form of children's literature was the moral poem, and the first good moral poetry was written by Watts. He used the realistic method of arguing from something which a child knows to be true to the principle which he wished to inculcate.

"Let dogs delight to bark and bite,
For God hath made them so,
* * * * *
But children you should never let
Such angry passions rise."

Goldsmith's "Goody Two Shoes" was the first bit of prose which had vitality enough to last through generations, and for that reason it may be considered the cornerstone of children's fiction. The test of a book does not lie, of course, in the generation in which it was written. It may respond to a certain popular sentiment which has no permanency rather than to a universal chord. There were in the middle and latter part of the 18th century many little books for children. They were entirely cautionary and negative, and childhood was but a symbol of natural depravity and human weakness. They were the product of a time when undue stress was laid upon moral values, and they lived through their day. Like the old Italian masters who gave children a knowledge of the weight of life, Goldsmith conventionalized his characters and made a child of eight a woman of thirty in thought and action, but he caught many of the interests of children and he gave us a story which even to the young child is quaint but interesting for "Goody Two Shoes" appears to children as a child.

Any contemplation of the great moral school and of the Taylors and Maria Edgeworth raises the question of the value to children of a literature which to the grow-up is so exaggerated in its teaching and so mechanical in its method. But we must remember that all great lessons in idealistic literature which are for the primitive mind and the child are drawn with the boldest lines. Do we not readily accept the exaggeration of the fairy tale because it appeals to our fancy! Certainly the means by which Little Red Riding-Hood is taught has a very picturesque quality, and it is much stronger in its lesson than The Three Bears because it is more exaggerated. In the same way we must accept the methods of the didactic school, even though it appeals to us as overdrawn according to our mature ideas of the values of life. This exaggeration is necessary because children are imaginative, emotional and impulsive, and they are so detached from the laws of life that they must learn what the governing forces are. The basic principles are virtues which must be inculcated when life is young—honesty, truth-telling, obedience, bravery, along with the formation of habits of cleanliness, industry, etc. Such qualities are the foundation of a fine moral character, and in this connection both the idealistic and didactic literature have their function. The two great lessons of idealistic literature are lessons

of a primitive people—bravery and obedience. In acquiring these lessons through the imagination they become a part of moral fibre and the child can be brave and obedient from impulse. However, the very fact that we are a product of a civilization and the myth is of primitive man means that the myth and the folklore do not teach all of the lesser virtues which we wish to inculcate. Moreover, the fine moral being will not only be able to do right from impulse; he must be able to see the wrong and choose the right, for thereby is moral judgment developed. This is the opportunity of the didactic school. The theme of the Edgeworth school is the direct result of the choice of right or wrong elaborated upon with great detail, which gives reality to the story, while the incidents are so entirely within a child's comprehension that the force of the lesson is given. Maria Edgeworth's work is the product of her talent as an author and her intimate experience with her innumerable brothers and sisters; it was from their need she drew her theme. Nowhere else can we find the simple nursery virtues taught with such intricacy of plot which illustrates the truth of their value. Simple Susan's honest, heroic nature, as shown by her sacrifice of her pet lamb in her efforts to save her father from the army, stands in contrast to Barbara's deceit, which is so true to a petty, spiteful disposition, and at the close of the story the reader's sympathy is entirely with the good. To the adult the most serious detraction is the strong, materialistic side of the story, the attitude that honesty is the best policy; but this strong materialistic phase is balanced by the spirituality of the child reader. The principle for use is this: all literature which has great exaggeration should be given to young children. "Rosamond" and the poetry of the Taylors belong to children before they are eight or nine, while the "Parent's assistant," because of its detail plot, belongs to children of eleven and twelve. "Rosamond," more than any other child's book, has been pointed to by the finger of scorn. Pedagogically, it refutes the very principle which the author wished to teach—the value of the absence of external authority. Its vitality lies in the universality of illustration, and it undoubtedly develops judgment in the child who reads it.

It was the Lambs who first recognized the vitality for children in great idealistic literature, but it was also with an appreciation of its didactic qualities. In his preface to Ulysses,

Lamb interprets giants, sirens, enchanters as "things which denote external force or internal temptations, the twofold danger which a wise fortitude must expect to encounter in its course through the world." Until Lamb interpreted Shakespeare children had come in contact with life in its simple forms only. He broadened their horizon by bringing within their understanding the complexity of life, and all who wish to interest children in Shakespeare must use his method of dealing with such characters as Hamlet and Lear. His lucid analysis of psychological situations required a master mind. "Mrs. Liecester's school," which is largely Mary Lamb's work, marks another radical departure and is a wonderful bit of realism in its delicacy of delineation of the tender sensibilities of young children. Mrs. Molesworth later took up the same theme as exemplified by "Carrots," and both of these books have great value to the student in showing how apart children are from actual life. Mary Lamb's stories have more plot and a more didactic atmosphere than Mrs. Molesworth's, but "Mrs. Leicester's school" has that exquisite refinement of feeling which always belongs to any book of the Lambs.

Harriet Martineau brought to children's literature her peculiar ability to delineate national life and its problems by means of individual example. She is realistic both in her theme and in her method. There is no indication that she was inspired by any early children's books. Her "Feats on fjord" is a masterly delineation of the influence upon the people of national customs. With a well constructed plot, she pictures the stultifying effect of superstition and its slow eradication from the peasant mind, with a clearness which makes one believe that all things are understandable to young children if it comes to them by the hands of genius. In "Crofton boys" she was far ahead of her time. There she confines herself entirely to a picture of English school life and the development of a boy's character under its influence. This book is a forerunner of "Tom Brown," and in its very truthful delineation of child life, of Miss Alcott and Mrs. Ewing.

It is interesting to notice the motive of the first American author who acquired a reputation as a writer for children—Peter Parley. He began to write about the close of the first quarter of the last century, and he undoubtedly gained his impulse from the members of the English school who wrote

mainly to impart information. The Aikens' "Evenings at home," which is now the best-known book of that school, elucidates all manner of subjects from the manufacture of paper to the transmigration of the soul. While a book of such character naturally touches upon many things which are beyond children it has the attraction of the modern magazine for desultory reading, which children as well as grown-ups enjoy. Peter Parley was quite as versatile as the Aikens; his main subjects were history, biography, travel, astronomy, natural science, and his books had a tremendous popularity. He had a certain mental quality of childlike love of wonder which gave his work the naïveté which is charming to the grown-up, but it is doubtful if his books could ever be resuscitated. American children's literature at no time showed any breadth of imagination or any unity of spirit. The work of each author seems quite detached from the work of others. Jacob Abbott, who wrote later, has some claim for a permanent place in literature based at least on his atmosphere of rural New England life. He shows fine ability for detail and an excellent knowledge of children's interests, but he lacks entirely a sense of the dramatic, and, unfortunately, the life of the modern American child is too fast moving for much sympathy with these pictures of quiet wholesome life. Now and then a child will show a great fondness for his books, but they cannot be popularized unless, perhaps, in that section of the country in which they were written. Hawthorne was the first American who showed an appreciation of great idealistic literature when he wrote his "Wonder book," but his method was realistic in that he avoided the classic spirit and gave the myths modern habiliments. Kingsley, in England, followed soon after with his "Heroes," in which he takes great care to preserve the classic spirit. We should say that with Hawthorne's more doubtful method none but his genius could achieve his success. It would certainly be a greater loss to a child never to read the "Heroes" than never to read the "Wonder book," although the latter is more attractive to children because of that touch which is realistic to the child.

About this same time Dickens wrote his "Child's history," which was preceded some twenty years by Scott's "Tales of a grandfather." It is entirely fitting that Scott should be the one to appreciate the value to children of another class of idealistic literature—the legend. Scott's method and ability for such work

has never been questioned, while it is now an accepted theory that Dickens's strong partisanship unfitted him for historical work. However, his method is right, although there may be unpardonable inaccuracies. He approaches his subject through legend and he clothes it with reality. He is the main historical basis we have for children of all that is picturesque in the past of England.

The peculiar fitness of the semi-historical romance for young girls was seen by Grace Greenwood, who, in her "Merrie England" and "Bonnie Scotland" rewrote the romantic legends. While her work cannot be called historical, she gave the spirit and atmosphere of early times with a touch of pure feminine sentiment which shows her strong sympathy for a young girl's craving for romance. She is one of the very few fine authors who have produced books which belong peculiarly to girls.

No cursory glance at the development of a literature for children is complete without a mention of the Sunday School books which sprung from the great religious revival of the 18th century. The spirit of this appeal was through the emotions, as instanced by Dinah's preaching in Adam Bede. The methods used were those of the moral school, the over-accentuation of a virtue, usually self-abnegation but while this was a legitimate means in the didactic school because it appealed to the judgment and reason in an impersonal way, it was an illegitimate use in the religious book because the appeal is so entirely personal that the judgment is unbalanced and the real meaning of life and one's relation to it is destroyed. However, about the middle of the 19th century we find a saner method of religious teaching in both verse and prose. Dr. Watts's doctrine

> "'Twas to save thee, child, from dying,
> Save my dear from burning flame"

becomes with Mrs. Alexander,

> "We may not know, we cannot tell
> What pains He had to bear,
> But we believe it was for us,
> He hung and suffered there."

The great opportunity of the religious story was shown by Miss Yonge when she wrote her home stories. With even greater detail than is usual for such books, and with an analysis which

is entirely realistic, she pictures a girl's small faults and their gradual correction by means of the practical application of the Christian ideal to the trials of everyday life. It is possible for a girl to see in one of Miss Yonge's books her own place in the home life as well as to realize the possible evolution of a noble character. Such books as "The daisy chain" are the only sane religious stories we have and should be used with faith in their ethical value.

The period of 1860-1880 marks the greatest development in children's literature. Then were created the most truthful pictures of that child life which had been presaged in Blake's "Songs of innocence" and "Crofton boys"and "Mrs. Leicester's school." In this period, in Miss Alcott and Mrs. Ewing, we find childhood as we know it to be. Blake's interpretation of childhood was entirely idealized and spiritual. The child is his symbol of purest life. Indeed, we sometimes feel that he may not have written for children except that he says :

"And I wrote my happy songs
Every child may joy to hear."

Certainly the appeal he makes is entirely to the mystic child His "Little lamb, who made thee?" is his best-known and most fitting poem for children. It remained for Mrs. Ewing, who stands at the close of our historical view, to combine the spiritual quality of Blake which is universal to children with that seed of heroism which also belongs to all children and to picture in a more tangible way the child spirit. In all children's literature she is the classic author, the one who measures highest when judged by accepted standards. There is sometimes a tendency to compare her to her discredit with the modern authors of girls' books because the latter is more popular. One might as well compare a Meissonier with a Verestchagin because the latter would attract more attention in a gallery. Mrs. Ewing has cast her stories in such an exquisite mould that children who have read mainly the mediocre cannot find easily the kernel. Children enjoy "Jackanapes" and "Timothy's shoes" and others of hers when they are disclosed to them.

A study of the development of the literature for children is one of the cultural sides of our work. It develops our appreciation of the place which children's literature has in all literature. to know that great minds bent their powers in its

direction when it had no place, and consequently they had no reason to expect that tilling in its fields could bring them either name or fame. With few exceptions the books mentioned are not those which children seize upon, but those which, even though naturally disregarded, have their value.

List of Books Illustrating the Beginnings of a Literature for Children

[This is a selected list of books to illustrate the subject and does not include all early books which may be recommended for use in a children's room.

Only modern editions are noted, and in the instance of Mother Goose and Grimm only editions which are practically reprints of the earlier ones. As far as possible, cheap editions are given as well as the expensive, which are more ideal.

The date is that of first publication.]

1715 & 1720 WATTS
Divine and moral songs
——il. by Gaskin. Page $1

1765 GOLDSMITH (?)
History of Goody Two Shoes.
——ed. by Welsh. (Home & school classics) Heath 20c

1786 TRIMMER
Fabulous histories.
—History of the robins; ed. by Hale. (Home & school classics) Heath 20c

1789 BLAKE
Songs of innocence.
——il. by Geraldine Morris. Lane 1s 6d

1793-5 AIKIN & BARBAULD
Evenings at home. Routledge 1s 6d

1796 EDGEWORTH
Parent's assistant.
—Tales; il. by Thompson. Stokes $1.50

1804 TAYLOR, JANE & ANN
Original poems for infant minds
—Original poems & others; ed. by Lucas; il. by Bedford. Stokes $1.50
—Little Ann & other poems; il. by Greenaway. Warne 3s 6d

1807 LAMB, CHARLES & MARY
Tales from Shakespeare. (Everyman's library) Dutton 1s
——il. by Price. Scribner $2.50

1808 LAMB, CHARLES
Adventures of Ulysses.
——il. by Squire & Mars. Harper $2.50

1808 LAMB, CHARLES & MARY
Mrs. Leicester's school.
——il. by Green. Macmillan $2.25

1809 COTTIN
Elizabeth; or, The exiles of Siberia. Peck 50c

1809 LAMB, CHARLES & MARY
Poetry for children.
——il. by Green. Dent 2s 6d

1818 SHERWOOD
1842& History of the Fairchild family.
1847 ——il. by Rudland. Stokes $1.50

1822 EDGEWORTH
Rosamond. Routledge 1s 6d

1823 PEARSON & SHARPE
Dame Wiggins of Lee and her seven wonderful cats.
——ed. by Ruskin. Allen 1s 6d

1824 GRIMM, J. L. K. & W. K.
German popular stories; with designs by Cruikshank.
——tr. by Edgar Taylor; with an introd. by Ruskin. Chatto 6s 6d
While these tales were collected for their value to the folklorist, the first English translation was designed for children.

1828-30 SCOTT
Tales of a grandfather. 4v. Houghton $4.50

1833 MOTHER GOOSE
Only true Mother Goose melodies; an exact reproduction of the text & il. of the original ed. of 1833. Lee 60c
This is not the earliest edition of Mother Goose.

1841 MARTINEAU
Crofton boys. Routledge 1s 6d

1841 MARTINEAU
Feats on the fjord. Routledge 1s 6d

1841 MARTINEAU
Peasant & the prince. Routledge 1s 6d

1841 MARRYAT
Masterman Ready. Burt 50c
——il. by Pegram. Macmillan $1.50

1846 ANDERSEN
Wonderful stories for children; tr. by Mary Howitt
This included but ten stories
— Stories & tales. Houghton $1
— Wonder stories for children $1
— The most complete edition; recommended for the student of Andersen. Editions more attractive to children are the Lippincotts, il. by Stratton $2; Nister, il. by Hardy $2.50; McLaughlin 75c (no. 821)

1848 ALEXANDER
Hymns for little children.
— — il. by John & Dorothea Drew. S. P. C. K. 1s

1850 ABBOTT
Franconia stories. 10 v. in 5. Harper $5

ABBOTT
Biographies. Harper, 30c
Select the lives which appeal most directly to children such as Hannibal, Alexander, Mary Queen of Scots.

ABBOTT
Rollo books; Rollo's travels in Europe. 10 v. in 5. Mershon $2.50

1851 HAWTHORNE
Wonder books for girls & boys. Houghton $1.25
— — il. by Crane. Houghton $3

1851 RUSKIN
King of the Golden river. Page 50c

1853 CRUIKSHANK
Fairy library.
— Cruikshank fairy book. Putnam $1.25

1853 HAWTHORNE
Tanglewood tales for girls & boys. Houghton $1.25
— — il. by Edwards. Houghton $2.50

1854-5 DICKENS
Child's history of England. (Gadshill ed.) Scribner $1.50
— — il. by Wilson. Dent 5s

1856 KINGSLEY
The heroes. Macmillan $1
— — il. by Robinson. Nister 7s 6d

1856 YONGE
Daisy chain. Macmillan 3s 6d

1857 HUGHES
Tom Brown's school days. (Cranford ed.) Macmillan 3s 6d

1865 DODGSON
Alice in Wonderland; il. by Tenniel. Macmillan $1

1866 YONGE
Dove in the eagle's nest. Macmillan 3s 6d

1868-69 ALCOTT
Little Women. Little $1.50

1869 ALDRICH
Story of a bad boy. Houghton $1.25

1870 MacDONALD
At the back of the North wind. Burt $1

1871 ALCOTT
Little men. Little $1.50

1872 EWING
Six to sixteen. S. P. C. K. 1s 6d

1872 EWING
The miller's thumb.
— Jan of the windmill. S. P. C. K. 1s 6d
First published in *Aunt Judy's Magazine* under the title of "The miller's thumb."

1873 CARY, ALICE & PHOEBE
Ballads for little folks. Houghton $1.50

1873 EWING
Lob Lie-by-the-fire; il. by Caldecott. S. P. C. K. 1s

1874 CRAIK
Little lame prince. Harper 60c

1876 ANDREWS
Seven little sisters. Ginn 50c

1876 MOLESWORTH
Carrots. Macmillan 2s 6d

1879 EWING
Jackanapes; il. by Caldecott. S. P. C. K. 1s

GOOD COLLECTIONS

LUCAS, ed.
Old fashioned tales; il. by Bedford. Stokes $1.50
Well chosen stories from Thomas Day, Maria Edgeworth, the Lambs, Jacob Abbott, Peter Parley & others.

LUCAS, ed.
Book of verses for children. Holt $1
Poetry of the moral school under chapter headings: Compressed natural history, Unnatural history, Old-fashioned girls, Old-fashioned boys.

MacDONALD, ed.

Babies' classics; il. by Hughes. Longmans 4s 6d

Collection of poems for young children, from Blake the Taylors, Watts, Mary Howitt, George MacDonald, Kingsley & others.

SCUDDER

Children's book. Houghton $2.50

Many of the best old poems and stories under chapter headings: A few songs, The book of stories in verse, The book of familiar stories.

GREAT LITERATURE AND LITTLE CHILDREN

The question of Where, When, and Why the child should be introduced to the "rich deposit of the centuries," was answered in 1904 by Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf, then president of the New York State Library Association, in an article contributed to *The Chautauquan.* Mrs. Elmendorf believes that literature has no age limit, and that there is an advantage in introducing children to great literature while they must be read to. A biographical sketch of the writer appeared in Volume III of this series.

If one were to say, "Let fathers and mothers carefully choose pleasure books for their children and they need care little who chooses text-books," it might perhaps seem somewhat startling. Yet the statement is quite as true as the old saying, "If I may make the songs of a nation, I care not who makes its laws," and that we let pass without a thought. It is true to the same extent for the same reason; both versions are but different ways of saying that things which inspire to love and to pleasure are more powerful to form character than things which restrict or compel obedience.

It would be logical to take one step further, "If fathers and mothers will read to their children, at home, they may be comparatively serene as to who teaches them at school." If this step further seems a long step, let us take a shorter one. It is certainly true that parents who live with their children in this matter, have power to correct the inaccuracies and supplement the shortcomings of poor teachers, or have equal power to enrich the information and deepen the inspiration given by good teachers.

If fathers and mothers would take the trouble, and it is a trouble which is its own reward, to really know the books which children may be helped to love, if parents would but open the doors of literature's "stately pleasure dome" and walk

with their children in its glancing lights, they might be forever free from fear of godless schools or schools of narrow culture.

Many a mother who would be shocked by the bare statement of Rousseau's old doctrine that children should be wholly surrendered to the care of the community, not watched and ministered to in the family, does virtually surrender her own children to the care of the state in those things which are most vital to their real well-being. With care and toil and fret she feeds and clothes her children's bodies, but is content to know little of school or teacher, either of day school or of Sunday school, and is content to know still less of library or librarian. Yet these are the agencies that feed and clothe the mind and soul "that build for aye."

It is such a "sunny pleasure dome" too, "that dome in air," that one envies the fathers and mothers who play there with their children, and wonders how any are found who pretend to "the luxury of children," and yet surrender this delight to teachers or to librarians.

The gateway into literature is the printed page, but in the childhood of the race, to which teachers are fond of tracing back in studying how best to teach the children of today, it was not so. Literature then passed from lips to ears, and law and history, song and story, were always something "our fathers have told us."

Blind Homer and the chief singer of Israel and skalds and bards and minnesingers are all gone, tradition is almost a by-word, but mothers still live, and children need not wait until they have conquered the crabbed types before they begin to love literature.

A good many years ago, when the kindergarten was newly transplanted to this soil and its apostles were a flaming fire, a little mother went to hear a kindergarten lecture. The little mother's heart burned within her as she listened, and when the lecture was finished she went forward and eagerly asked, "How soon may I begin to teach my little child?" The kindergartner gravely asked, "How old is your child?" and the mother shyly replied, "My baby is only two months old." The kindergartner replied, in all seriousness, "You have then, wasted the two most precious months of her life!"

The case is still more serious for the two months'-old baby and literature, for the proper time to begin to teach a child

to love literature is precisely that prescribed by Dr. Holmes as the time to call the doctor for the cure of some diseases,—you should begin with the grandmother. It is not "the two most precious months," but the two most precious generations that are wasted if the grandmother was not taken in time.

It is a defrauded baby who was not crooned over in her grandmothers' arms with

"When shepherds watched their flocks by night,"

and

"Hush, my dear, lie still and slumber,"

and

"There is a green hill far away."

The small girl has missed part of her birthright who did not sit on her father's knee and listen, wide eyed,

"To hear how the water
Comes down at Lodore
With its rush and its roar."

or to whom in after years a little, old, ragged blue-and-gold Scott is not dear because the sight of it brings back her mother's voice saying,

"The stag at eve had drunk his fill," and all the long, lovely story.

"But the child does not understand it all!" To be sure she does not, but she listens, she remembers, "she keeps all these things in her heart," and one day she will understand.

A good many years ago in those dark ages when the ideal of most public libraries was that they were places to gather and *preserve* books—what their ideal is now is another story, but it is not that—in a certain library in a certain city a legend, writ large, ran thus: "Children and dogs not allowed." The notice meant that this library had, what most libraries had in those days, though perhaps few of them expressed it quite so brusquely, what is technically known as an "age limit," which means that it excluded the children. Literature has no "age limit;" the littlest children, especially "Children accompanied by their parents or guardians," may come and find welcome.

Much might be said about the advantages of introducing children to great literature while they must be read to. In the first place, there is the gain in time. Children are made free of "the rich deposit of centuries" years before they could read for

themselves. In the second place, the story-hour affords a charming meeting place for parents and children and adds much to mutual understanding and sympathy. In the third place, children gain an understanding of certain forms of literature from the cadences of the voice that the printed page alone never gives. A deaf Beethoven could hear with his eyes on the written musical notes. Only a poet really knows poetry from the printed page alone.

But the better understanding is not confined to poetry for matter, nor to the littlest children for auditors. A young girl of no very bookish type once visited in the home of an uncle who loved his wife's reading of the inimitable fun of the "Uncle Remus" tales. The young girl didn't care for "Uncle Remus," but she listened, and by and by all alone, in her quiet hour she was heard reading the same passages aloud, catching the very lilt of her aunt's voice as she told the story how "Brer Rabbit come pacin' down de road—lippity-clippity, clippity-lippity—dez ez sassy as a jay bird."

It is not for nothing that we feel a sense of disappointment in reading those speeches of great orators, by which they swayed multitudes. We have the words the man spoke, but the man behind the speech, the compelling cadences of his voice, the emphasis of face and gesture are all lost.

Many a child is shut out forever from the love of poetry because when he is young and lisps in numbers with the greatest ease, no one opens the gates of real poetry to him by reading to him, and so showing him by spoken words the music and flow of the measured, melodious lines.

Children can be helped to lay up untold treasures for themselves in those young days when memory's mirror is bright, by being taught to learn poetry—but "that is another story" which must not invade this one.

. . . The book world today is like that mountain forest which we New Yorkers call the North Woods. Giant trees are the glory of it, but between and around them is a mass of underbrush, much of it beautiful too in its way, which yet makes a journey through the forest difficult and slow. The wise man nowadays who would fain attract those who need health and strength and refreshment into the beautiful forest, cuts trails through the trees, past the big tree, by the mountain brook, with now and then a far-reaching vista through toward

great mountain peaks. He sacrifices some things in making the trail, but he prepares a way by which folk whose life-work falls on a different road, may gain some notion of the chief delights of the forest.

Perhaps the most helpful thing that the librarian, whose daily life is in the forest of the books of the day, can do is now and then to make a list of books that shall serve, in some sort, as a trail through his forest. Those who delight to thread the forest unaided need not touch such lists. Those who would like to start contentedly on a smaller journey may find some use in them. So a committee of the New York Library Association has thought it might help busy mothers somewhat with the suggestion of about a dozen books that they would like to read to the little folks.

What is read to a child, what a child reads, is not valuable chiefly for the facts thereby taught, but rather for the pleasure that it gives now, and still more for the pleasure it prepares for in after life. Literature has a great mine, that "rich deposit of centuries" spoken of before, and from it all our best authors continually draw, for the enrichment and ornament of their work, in allusions to the great, old-world tales. The New York State list has been made up almost wholly of collections of these great old stories and rhymes.

Where should we begin but with "Mother Goose" herself? Mothers will like an edition arranged by Charles Welsh called "A Book of Nursery Rhymes." Some of the coarsest rhymes are omitted, and the whole has a good introduction and a pleasing arrangement. The child loves the witty nonsense and the rhymes linger in his memory to point many a moral and adorn many a tale. For example, how easily the child catches the idea of an easy, pleasant greeting of the passing stranger from

"One misty moisty morning,
When cloudy was the weather,
I chanced to meet an old man
Clothed all in leather.
He began to compliment,
I began to grin."

Next is the little old favorite "Verse and Prose for Beginners in Reading." This also contains many nursery rhymes, but much beside, and is so inexpensive and so good that it

is quite worth while. The publishers might make us an edition in holiday dress, to their own advantage and to our pleasure.

Next is "Baby's Own Æsop," with morals pictorially pointed in a series of delightful pictures by Walter Crane.

Next might come Kate Douglas Wiggin's "The Posy Ring," the most charming collection of verses for children that heart could desire, though a close second to it is called "The Land of Song" and is made up by Katharine Shute in three pretty volumes, graded for children from the littlest up.

Then there is the ever-welcome Grimm's "Fairy Tales," and, as the mother is to read them aloud and let the children look at the pictures, there is no version that equals Lucy Crane's translation with pictures by Walter Crane.

Perhaps even before Grimm might come the children's own "Hans Christian Andersen," whom no translation has been able to spoil, but who is most truly rendered in the edition by Mrs. E. Lucas, illustrated by the Robinsons.

The famous old French fairy tales of Charles Perrault, which includes "Cinderella," "Little Thumb," "The Sleeping Beauty" and others, are well told in an edition translated by Charles Welsh, called "Tales of Mother Goose."

From fairy tales to the old classic myth, is but a step, and such a pleasant step, in Hawthorne's "Tanglewood Tales" and "Wonder Book," and the edition of the first with pictures by George Wharton Edwards, and of the second by Walter Crane, give much pleasure, though they are expensive.

The Jungle Book by Kipling can be read to children much earlier than most people think, and dear old "Uncle Remus, His songs and His Sayings," will be almost a sealed book to children because of the difficult look of the dialect, unless it is read aloud. "The Book of Nature Myths," by Florence Holbrook, and "Collection of Wigwam Stories," by M. C. Judd, and "Fifty Famous Stories Retold," by James Baldwin, round out a short series that the youngsters will enjoy, and the mothers, too.

Let us not forget to add mention, though they are not on the published list, of two little volumes of "Old and New Testament Stories," in the "Modern Reader's Bible" set, which are in the real words of the Bible, but so arranged as to tell the stories, and nothing but the stories.

Of all the great books of the world, the Bible furnishes

more allusions many times over in literature than any other, and no one can read the great poets or essayists understandingly without knowledge of its riches.

WHAT I READ AS A CHILD

The author, Stephen B. Leacock, tells of his favorites in the *Book Bulletin* of the Toronto Public Library for July, 1920, and delightfully concludes with the statement that as a writer of books it is his opinion that children, or at least young persons, are the best readers. This statement has been widely quoted and discussed in many of the library periodicals.

Stephen Butler Leacock was born in Swanmoor, Hants, England, in 1869, and was educated at the University of Toronto and Chicago University. Since 1903, he has been connected with the staff of McGill University, Montreal, where he is now head of the Department of Political Economy. His popular humorous essays have made him widely known.

I have no difficulty whatever in naming the books that I used to read as a child, inasmuch as I am reading them still. When I was about twelve years old I began to read the "Pickwick Papers," and I very soon decided that Charles Dickens was the greatest writer who ever lived on this earth. I have seen no occasion since to revise that judgment. I read all of Dickens' books, one after another. The only one that I didn't care for was "The Old Curiosity Shop." It seemed to me, as it still does, very maudlin. As for the other books, they seemed to me marvellous beyond words. At the time when I was reading Dickens' for myself I was being made to read at school such stuff as Milton's "Paradise Lost." I was glad that it was lost, but wished that it had been lost beyond recall. Milton's writings struck me, when a little boy, as poor pedantic sort of drivel, such as an uninspired schoolmaster might write. I imagine that, if I let them, they would strike me in the same way now.

At the same time, when I was reading Dickens I was reading Mark Twain's books—such of them as had appeared—with

almost equal affection. "Tom Sawyer" I never cared for. But the "Innocents Abroad" I ranked in my view of the history of human thought on the same level as Sir Isaac Newton's "Principia." I still rank it there. "Huck Finn," when it came out, seemed to me a great book. I suppose the greatest ever written in America.

I read also with avidity all the stories of Jules Verne that came my way. There is one in three volumes called "The Mysterious Island," which I read at fourteen and which I still read again and again. The characters, of course, are puerile, the incidents mechanical, the dialogue contemptible; but the basis of the story, which tells of shipwrecked men upon an island, starting with nothing and contriving everything and with no women in the tale to mess it up, is one that commands the interest of every rightly constructed boy either of fifteen or fifty.

I read—and I am only too glad to admit it—half-dime novels. I read a lot of them, but I cannot remember their names. I should read them still if I could get any of the kind and brand that I read thirty-five years ago. But I imagine that the plot and characters have changed. The scene of the half-dime, I remember, was always laid "on the prairie." This was a vague conception, now hopelessly damaged by a mental picture of state boundaries and railroad maps and news items about prohibition votes in Dakota and agricultural conventions in Omaha. There may, for all I know, still be prairies, but for literary uses the prairie is dead.

The half-dime of my early days always opened with "Bang! Bang! Bang! Bang!" This is no longer possible with modern weapons of precision. Some one would get hit.

May I add to this discussion a further word in a somewhat different connection? As a writer of books it is my opinion that children, or at least young persons—are the best readers; indeed, the only real readers. Grown-up adults are badly damaged. They read in an inattentive way, with no real effort of mental power to fuse the picture before them in the white heat of imagination. They read and forget. They would pass by Weller and never see him. They would forget Huck Finn's name overnight. Their judgments are the standard of education and their admiration lies dead in the grave of their childhood. For real literary success let me tell a fairy story to the listening ears and the wondering face of my little son of four.

MAKING YOUR OWN LIBRARY

In spite of the title, much of this article is applicable to the making of a collection of children's books for a public library, especially the general principles laid down for book selection. It was contributed in 1919 to St. Nicholas by Annie Carroll Moore, supervisor of Work with Children in the New York Public Library.

In an article entitled "Children, Libraries and the Love of Reading," which appeared in *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* for September, 1916, Miss Moore says:—"There should be an inviting selection of books in good editions familiarly known and constantly re-read and discussed by those who are seeing the daily use of them by children and their parents. There should be generous duplication of the most desirable titles that a child may not have to wait months or years to read the book his friend is reading. There should be sufficient variety in the selection of titles to appeal to great diversity of taste in reading."—Biographical data concerning the writer appeared in Volume II of this series.

In the Children's Room of the great library which stands at the corner of Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street of New York City, you will find a fat little volume bound in faded red and gold, bearing on the flyleaf this inscription:

R. Lewis Balfour Stevenson
With love and best wishes from
his affectionate Aunt
Louise E. Balfour
5th August 1851.

This book is accounted one of the chief treasures of this children's library, not because of the authorship, although the

writer, Samuel G. Goodrich, was well known in his day for his tales from history and travel; nor yet for its contents, "Peter Parley's Tales about Europe, Asia, Africa, and America," which may amuse, but have long ceased to charm or inform the boy and girl readers: the little book is valued because it held a place in the library made long ago in Scotland by the boy who was to write "Treasure Island," "Kidnapped," and "The Child's Garden of Verses."

With some books there remain associations of time and place and of other books, as well as of the personalities of their readers; the Stevenson "Peter Parley" is such a book. It belonged to Robert Louis Stevenson from his sixth birthday, and many of its illustrations are crudely colored by his childish hand. It stood on the same shelf with his copy of "Robinson Crusoe," and we know it was one of the books he carried to the South Sea Islands, for on the end-paper is pasted this label

From the Library of Robert Louis Stevenson
At Vailima.

When the Stevenson library of books and manuscripts was sold, his copy of "Peter Parley's Tales" passed into the library of the children of New York. It seems to us, especially on his birthday, as if he might have placed it there himself as a perpetual reminder that books loved in childhood should go with us in our pilgrimage through the world.

How often these books, or stories out of them, are carried only in half-memories. "Have you ever come upon a story called 'William, the Woodcutter'?" asked a British naval commander visiting our children's library just after the signing of the Armistice. "It is a story of wolves that I remember reading with great delight when a lad, but I've never been able to find it since I grew up. I would give anything to read it now." Rarely do we meet the man or woman who has kept intact the books of childhood and youth and given them their place in a library of mature years. If we hold it true that "authors are to their readers little new worlds to be explored," how interesting it becomes to look back over the books we read and reread and associate with our earliest birthday and Christmas recollections!

"The Christmas Tree," of Dickens, *David Copperfield* "reading for dear life," *Jo March* crying over the "Heir of Redclyffe"

in a Concord garret, bring back memories of books to all of us. But what of the books themselves—those books which delighted us from the time we discovered that pictures could tell stories? Where are they and what were they?

At a primitive mountain inn far up in the land of the Frost Giants we found, in the summer of 1912, a copy of "Little Lord Fauntleroy" in the Norwegian language. On the flyleaf was the name of the proprietor, the only English-speaking person in the place. His boyhood had been spent in Minnesota, and he had read the story there in English. Coming in one day from a long tramp over the snow-fields, we picked up the book, and, as we began to read, sitting in the glow of that glorious sunshine, we seemed to be holding a much larger and a very friendly and familiar book, bound in red and black and gold, volume thirteen of ST. NICHOLAS, in which we first read the story. ST. NICHOLAS might well be called the forerunner of children's libraries, since so many of the favorite books of boys and girls first appeared within its hospitable covers. In the children's room of the public library in Christiana we had already seen not only "Little Lord Fauntleroy," but "Little Women," "Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm," "Hans Brinker," "Tom Sawyer," and many another familiar title translated into the Norwegian language.

This idea of special rooms for children in the free libraries of cities and towns originated, you know, in America, about twenty-five years ago, and has since been adopted to some extent in European countries.

Of course no community library ever can or will take the place of a personal library formed by the boy or girl who has money to spend for books. And every boy and girl, by gift or by their earnings, should have money with which to buy books of their own and suitable book-shelves on which to keep them. The training in judgment, discrimination, and sense of values acquired in making a thoughtful selection is of lasting benefit, and the habits of careful handling and good arrangement of books can be formed in no other way.

We would by no means advocate that boys and girls should have no books given to them. That would mean cruelty to parents, to devoted uncles, aunts, and friends. Rather, we are inclined to urge the thoughtful giving of books the year round, instead of heaping them too high at Christmas and on birth-

days. In our own experience, the unexpected gift of a well-timed book on Thanksgiving Day, St. Nicholas Eve (December Fifth), St. Valentine's Day, May Day, or Hallowe'en has proved a great delight. Biographies of Lincoln, Washington, Grant and Roosevelt may well be associated with the birthdays of these great men; histories of America and of European countries would often be more acceptable if they were associated with the myths, legends, and folk-tales of the Northern, Southern or Oriental countries.

Books dealing with the sciences, inventions, handicraft, games, sports, and out-of-door life usually make a very definite and insistent appeal, and should be given *when* they are wanted rather than before or afterward. In determining the psychological moment at which to give one book or another, the children's room of the public library so constantly acts as a clearing-house not only for the boys and girls, their parents, teachers, and friends, but for the authors, artists, publishers, and booksellers, that we venture to suggest some general principles of book selection and purchase for the making of a library.

I—Buy only those books of which you have first-hand knowledge and which are going to mean something to you at the time they are bought. Books should satisfy desires or supply needs.

II—Considerations in the selection of books:

Author. Has he or she the ability to write interestingly?

Subject. What is the book about? Is it well written? If a book of information, is it accurate? If a story, is it original? Is this the best book on the subject for your library at this time?

Artist or illustrator. Do the pictures add to the interest of the book? Has the artist interpreted the text?

Typography. Is the book printed in type that is easy to read?

Paper. The quality of paper used has very much to do with the legibility of the text, with the effect of the illustrations, and the general appearance of the book.

Binding. Is the book well put together? If bound in more than one color, choose the color you like best.

In the first volume of St. Nicholas (1873) there is an illustrated story called "Making a Library" that we have remembered from childhood. Little *Charlotte,* on a visit to her uncle,

discovers that the books on the upper shelves of his library are not real ones. "They were nothing but pasteboard boxes made like books and with the names printed in gold letters on the backs." *"Charlotte's* uncle," we are told, "was an uneducated man who had suddenly become rich. He wanted his house to have a fine library in it, but as he did not care for reading or for spending much money on books that would be of no use to him, he had these mock books made, and they looked just as well on the upper shelves as real ones." One day when *Charlotte* was playing house she determined to make a library of her own of these big books, which she could throw down so easily as she climbed from shelf to shelf. In passing the cradle where the baby was sleeping, *Charlotte* let several books slip from the great pile she was carrying. If they had been real books the baby would have been killed, the story runs, but they were all so light that the baby was unharmed. The baby did wake up, however, and cried his loudest, to the undoing of *Charlotte's* uncle. "It now became known just what sort of a library *Uncle Harry* had."

The artist who illustrated the story added to the dramatic force of the situation. He drew a little girl who might be the great-aunt of Peter Newell's child who feared "the Flowers—they are wild" carrying a pile of books extending high above her head from which several are falling about the cradle.

We were old enough when we read the story to make immediate application of it, and we never failed to assure ourselves that the books were real in the libraries we visited. But there came a day when we learned that some books may be as great a sham as the pasteboard boxes of *Charlotte's* uncle.

Children's Book Week, which we celebrated November 10-15, is, we trust, the sign and promise of a new day in which more thought will be given to the selection and purchase of books for boys and girls and a more understating coöperation of parents, teachers, librarians, publishers, and booksellers will be achieved.

SETS FOR CHILDREN

The following symposium on subscription sets conducted in 1913 by Harriet A. Wood, then head of the School Department of the Portland, Ore., Public Library and printed in *Public Libraries,* is of interest to mothers as well as librarians.

Although only a few sets are discussed, the question of the advisability of purchasing sets in general is fully covered, and opinions of leading workers with children are quoted concerning the subject matter, make-up and the advisability of purchase for library and home.

Harriet Ann Wood was born on August 9, 1871, in Saginaw, Mich., and was educated at Vassar College and Chicago University. She received a certificate from the New York State Library School, Albany, in 1898. She has been cataloger at the Cincinnati and University of Iowa libraries; librarian of the Public Library of Cedar Rapids, Ia., and school librarian of the Library Association of Portland, Ore. Since 1919 she has served as assistant director of libraries and supervisor of school libraries in the Library Division of the State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn.

Librarians and mothers are constantly solicited to buy subscription sets of books for children. The expense is always great but the agent is very persuasive and an astonishingly large number of sets are sold. In sparsely settled communities the business of the book agent is particularly brisk. We are informed that a firm has one hundred men in the field in Washington and Oregon clearing $3,000 a month on one set.

The sets that I was asked to investigate are the following:

1. Children's hour, ed. by E. M. Tappan. 10 v. Houghton. $17.50.

2. Young folks' library, ed. by T. B. Aldrich. New ser. 21 v. Hall and Locke, $45.

3. Children's library of work and play. 10 v. Doubleday, $20.

4. Book of knowledge, ed. by Arthur Mee and Holland Thompson; introd; by J. H. Finley. 24 v. Grolier Society, $36.

After the manner of library folk, I addressed a circular letter to a number of children's librarians and others to discover their attitude. Opinions were asked on the subject matter, makeup, and the advisability of purchase for library or home. The librarians quoted are Miss Andrus, Seattle; Miss Bascom, editor A. L. A. Booklist; Miss Britton, Spokane; Miss Burnite, Cleveland; Miss Carson, Tacoma; Miss Hagey, Cedar Rapids; Miss Hunt, Brooklyn; Miss McMahon, Indianapolis; Miss Marvin, Oregon; Miss Otis, New York City; Miss Power, St. Louis; Mrs. Lyman-Scott, Oak Park; Miss Thompson, Newark; Miss Tyler, Iowa; Miss Van Buren, Madison; Miss Wheeler, Albany.

Children's Hour

This is an anthology of the best children's literature in story, poem and narrative. The A.L.A. Booklist for March, 1908, says: It cannot be recommended for the library with limited funds. A valuable addition to any library that can afford it.

Miss Wheeler writes: It seems to me an admirable collection of its kind, well chosen and well printed, probably the best of its type of anthology. Personally, I would rather urge the purchase of Hawthorne's Wonder-book, Grimm's Fairy tales, and other writings given in part in the collection than to have them selected for me (or my children) and massed in such an anthology. But this kind of a collection appeals to many people and I think it is reasonable in price.

Miss Britton has used this set and thinks the selection excellent. The binding is bright and although the volumes are the usual story book size, the printed page has the appearance of being heavy and dry and the pictures, while clear, are old-fashioned and stiff. It will prove most valuable in the home for it gives in few volumes the best of the world's literature enjoyed by children. The library has this same material in

other collections, so it is an excellent but not a necessary part of its equipment.

Miss Burnite recommends this set unqualifiedly for home use and buys it for the library when it can be procured at second-hand. She feels that the original price is too high for the ordinary library.

Miss Power keeps the set for reference, thinks the subject matter very good, especially for the story hour, but does not advise purchase for small libraries.

Miss Carson uses the set, thinks it good but the same library might not need both the Tappan and the Aldrich, as they are similar.

Miss Van Buren considers it probably the best compilation for children, with good print and illustrations, but expensive and unnecessary, as most libraries have in separate volumes all the material included.

Mrs Lyman-Scott regards this set a very good source for story-telling and for reference use. The selections are excellent, especially in the early volumes, where each selection is complete in itself. Only large libraries should buy it except at second-hand. In private libraries complete books for the children's reading are to be preferred. She has used it for her own work and with children.

Miss Hunt includes this set in her latest list of approved children's books.

Miss Hagey reports that the children use it but little, while teachers and librarians find it valuable. It would be better for the home than the small library.

Miss Otis, Miss McMahon and Miss Thompson add their testimony to the value of this set.

Young Folks' Library

This set is similar to the Children's hour but wider in its scope, including science and practical information.

Miss Britton uses and recommends it over the "Children's hour" for it covers more subjects and is more attractive in makeup. The important events in history are pleasingly presented, the colored pictures are good and the many black and white, which break into the page, are pleasing. The binding is not strong and there is trouble in replacing because separate volumes cannot be purchased.

Miss Power uses it for reference, Miss Hagey reports it more popular with the children than the "Children's hour," while Mrs Scott comments favorably but prefers the choice of material and number of volumes better in the former set.

Miss Wheeler thinks this is really the work of Mr Charles Welsh, Mr Aldrich probably having very little to do with it. Miss Burnite buys it occasionally at second-hand. Miss McMahon advises it for first purchase.

Children's Library of Work and Play

Miss Wheeler writes: I have examined only a few volumes. We were much disappointed in it. The work is uneven, some volumes being decidedly unsatisfactory. It is not thoroughly satisfactory on the physical side and the fact that no volume is indexed is much against it, all the more because some volumes are in story form. I have heard that some of the volumes are severely criticised and that it is the intention of the publishers to have some of them rewritten. In view of these circumstances we decided not to enter it in the Tentative List of Best Books, although I am not prepared to condemn the whole set.

Miss Britton has examined it and thinks the subject matter capably and attractively presented, print and binding good and the pictures clear. It would be useful in a library, but there is more demand from teachers than from children. The influence of the best literature on the character of boys and girls is of more importance than manual training dealt with in this practical set in a practical age.

Miss Andrus states that this set is in their central children's room. Prof Johnson, head of the manual training work in the city schools, considers it very good, and Prof Ward of Cleveland recommends it. However, though good and attractive, it is not popular with the children themselves, due probably to the fact that all information has been woven into a slight and uninteresting story, which makes it difficult to get at.

Miss Van Buren sends the notes used in her lectures at the Wisconsin library school: Avoid. Absurd presentation of the subjects handled. Authors may know their subjects but they certainly do not know children. Best volumes are those on needlecraft, home decoration, metal work, but these subjects have been as well handled in single volumes. It might be use-

ful for vocational and trade schools but not for the small library.

Miss Hagey is convinced that it is not essential for a library. The books would be old and out-of-date before the children in the home would use all of the volumes.

The fact that neither Miss Burnite nor Miss Power have examined the work shows the slowness with which children's librarians approached sets.

Book of Knowledge

Something on each of the following fourteen departments is found in each volume with reference to the page where the continuation may be found:

Book of the Earth, United States, Familiar Things, Wonder, Nature, Men and Women, Our Own Life, Golden Deeds, Famous Books, Stories, Pottery, All Countries.

It is continuously paged with a general index in the last volume.

Miss Marvin expresses the following opinion: It is better to have the classics of literature in original form and small encyclopaedias of other things. Scudder's Children's Book has all of the literature, Champlin the other material. The illustrations are to the point but very poor plates. Cheaply and badly printed. Marginal decorations bad. Brer Rabbit and other famous stories rewritten in words easier to read. We find that "accents means tones" and "the great violinist run down the platform steps."

Miss Wheeler writes: As to the Book of Knowledge, we think it a very unsatisfactory production. It probably contains some useful information but there is no guarantee of authority and it seems to consist of miscellaneous sweepings. Even admitting some value, the price is entirely out of proportion and we are not allowing public money for it. A note from the New York State library files reads: "A rather cheap looking octavo volume, each page framed in a border (several patterns) much too close for good effect. Many half-tones in text (rather poor work) and several very bad colored plates. The text is a miscellany in which one finds consecutively, e. g., The big ball we live on, The sun and his family, The land (U.S.) before the white men came, Peary's route to the pole, Why can't we see in the dark? Aladdin and the wonderful lamp.

A magic lantern for post cards, A dainty brush and comb bag, The Chinese empress, etc.

One librarian says: The work is like nothing so much as a huge scrap bag. Another was reminded of a clipping bureau collection at first and after looking through a little said it was worse than any vaudeville entertainment.

An agent who recently called at the Portland library stated that provision had been made by a special act of the New York state legislature for the purchase of the set for schools.

Miss Andrus reports: We have had the Book of Knowledge in our children's room for a short time. We have not, however, found it very useful. There is much good material in it covering a wide field, but the arrangement is such as to make it slow and impractical as a reference book. The children look at the pictures. As it is quite expensive, we do not feel that we could recommend it for either library or home.

Miss Otis writes: The Book of Knowledge is continually used and contains many subjects not found elsewhere, but each volume takes up the same groups of subjects, thus scattering material which could be consulted in less time in one volume. It would be useful in a small library where short articles are constantly demanded and in homes where a general range of subjects is desired and parents cannot afford to buy the number of books necessary to cover the same material in better form.

Miss Carson advises the purchase of this set. She has used it and thinks it too fine for even a small library to do without. It is a mine for reference work.

Miss Burnite and Miss Power examined the set but did not buy it.

Miss Britton thinks the hashed arrangement of subject matter is not satisfactory and without virtue in reference work. The tone is inferior and cheap. The pictures, while numerous and interesting, are poorly done, the color work being lurid and not artistic.

Miss Van Buren sends the following note from her lectures: Avoid. Thick paper, heavy volumes. Pages double-columned, giving crowded appearence. Style colloquial. The topics are briefly treated touching all knowledge. Variety of contents, even within the covers of one volume, bewildering. Young readers might be interested in the pictures.

Miss Tyler says: I have been much distressed by the purchase of this set by many of our small libraries at the full price asked by the agent. The book is so poorly bound and such a complete hodge-podge of all sorts of information that I have doubted its value. It has a very full index which may make it usable but certainly not worth more than half the price asked for it.

Miss Bascom feels that the review in the *Nation* for November 9, 1911, p. 447, settles the set for public library use. We agree with her conclusion. This review gets right at the root of the matter. It speaks of the set as "apparently well planned to win the favor of young readers." The points emphasized are the "bewildering variety of the contents, inviting brevity, carefully colloquial style, the whole being peppered with pictures." This is undoubtedly the type of books as well as entertainment that the present-day child enjoys, unless trained to think logically and connectedly for a definite time on a definite subject. The librarian has a great opportunity to supplement the work of the earnest teacher by not allowing the child to form bad habits of study.

The Grolier Society, which publishes this set, should not be confused with the Grolier Club, a learned society organized for the study and promotion of the arts pertaining to the production of books.

Books in Sets

Most of the librarians expressed themselves on the subject of sets in general.

Miss Hunt says: Of subscription sets, I tell mothers that it is an expensive way of buying books and that the library can help them to spend their money to better advantage by giving them titles of whole books rather than the extracts, abstracts and retold parts of classics, usually contained in these sets. All the sets you name have very good points and if money were no object we might get them all and certainly do no harm. But the fact that one must buy a whole set in order to replace one worn-out volume condemns the type for public libraries. Really we have nearly everything in cheaper form in our regular children's books.

Miss Burnite says: Sets are very expensive for a library because so much of the subject matter is duplication.

Miss Van Buren writes: I abhor sets for children and when I find them in libraries where I have influence my first act is to split them, putting the volume of poems with poetry, fairy tales with the other fairy tales, etc. They serve a much larger purpose this way.

Miss Otis feels that sets should be purchased with caution, the material being usually available in individual books which appeal more strongly to children. It is often so condensed in sets as to lose much of its value as literature.

Miss Carson says: My personal opinion is that a whole set of books, bound alike, lacks individuality and does not furnish much incentive for a single reader.

The Library Association of Portland has bought none of these sets, for the following reasons:

1. The material is already in the library in single volumes. Extracts are tantalizing to children. A child should be trained to read the whole of a classic or to make his own selections from the complete work. We exhort the children to do their own skipping. Scientific material is soon out-of-date. Inexpensive small books are better.

2. The impossibility of replacing lost or worn-out volumes without buying the entire set is a drawback.

3. The uniform bindings prevent children from appreciating beautiful editions in appropriate covers. A special collection of fine and less expensive editions of the best books for children is provided in each children's room, so that parents and children may have every chance to become familiar with the best books for the home.

The responsibility of distributing good literature in good form carries with it the duty of warning against the less good.

PICTURE BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

In a recent article on book selection for children, Miss Alice I. Hazeltine says: To clear the bookshelves from the debris of mediocrity, leaving plenty of space to draw near to the real books, is a task which calls for courage and for wisdom. In this article by Clara Whitehill Hunt, head of the Children's Department of the Brooklyn Public Library, various types of picture books are treated from the point of view of the child rather than that of the artist.

A biographical sketch of Miss Hunt appears in Volume II of this series.

It has taken the world a long time to wake up to the futility of trying to make children good by the use of negatives. No one has put the case for crowding out the bad by filling up with good more convincingly than Jane Addams in her "Spirit of Youth and the City Streets"; and the recent rapid growth of the playground movement, of the establishment of shops and domestic science rooms in the public schools, of the opening of recreation centers, or the transforming of "Keep off the grass" parks into farms for tenement-house children, these are some of the evidences that the "Do" is rapidly taking the place of the "Don't" principle in the methods of wise social workers.

There are mothers who have found it impossible to live up to their principle of substituting a good thing for the bad when they shut the door on the comic supplement of the Sunday newspapers. A search through the stores for picture books having the fetching qualities of the comic without its objectionable features reveals a discouraging heap of inanities, mild and safe enough to have satisfied the guardians of those anæmic little prigs in the Sunday-school stories of our childhood, but lacking the dramatic action, the humor, the vigor, the story-

telling qualities without which a picture takes slight hold upon a child of eager, lively interests.

One seldom needs to caution mothers against the unmistakably vicious books. The influence of the yellow-back is so well known that its lurid covers serve as poison labels to those who think at all. There are a thousand mothers who forbid the unblushingly bad books to one mother who takes any thought of the slow deterioration, if not of moral fiber, certianly of mental power which the habit of reading nothing but mediocre books causes. We meet women who would receive a shock to find their daughters reading "The Scarlet Letter," who view with complaisance their girls consuming stories from which, in the effort to make "safe" reading, the authors have obligingly eliminated all allusion to subjects that aren't "refined," with the result that for insipidity, lack of virility and style, their stories are such as sometimes to make the children's librarian vow she will take to breaking stone rather than wallow another fall through the mush with which the juvenile book counters will inevitably be filled.

When shall we learn the harmfulness of the harmless? Milk and water is a harmless mixture, but if a child refused to take any other nourishment we should be alarmed for his physical development. The effect of the mediocre habit upon mental growth is parallel, and parents who a few years hence will be disappointed to find their daughters preferring "Graustark" to "Henry Esmond" may also find with the weakening of mental power a lowering of tone in character due to association with book heroes and heroines who have no power to inspire to noble living.

When one sees a scholarly man buying for his daughter gentle tales of Dotties and Flaxies and Dimples, or a clever mother anxiously selecting words of one-syllable stories for two remarkably bright little boys—I am not drawing upon my imagination for these instances—one deplores the lost opportunities, knowing of children under ten who have listened spellbound to the "Jungle Books," Pyle's "King Arthur" and "Robin Hood," "The Prince and the Pauper," "Water-Babies," "Tanglewood Tales," and other noble books like these.

Large city libraries report that childrens' classics circulate best in the poorer sections. Is this because well-to-do parents, desiring to shield their children from every hardship, carry the

principle to saving young minds from listening to words not perfectly easy to understand? As if a child's mind were not as eager as his arms and feet to attain things beyond easy grasp!

By this time it will probably seem that I am taking a very circuitous path to reach the subject of picture books; but I hope to show that I am not so nearly related to Mrs. Nickleby as I may appear. We do not clearly enough perceive that all our principles of selection of books for children expressed in type should go into the artist's brush when he makes a child's picture book. Good coloring is not enough; good drawing isn't enough; neither will the exclusion of the vulgar suffice. An empty picture corresponds to the story which has nothing in it but words. A picture artistically beautiful but puzzlingly complicated is a Walter Pater style for children. A picture both lofty and simple, delightful alike to adults and children, is a Lamb's Ulysses. A picture of a charming group of interesting children doing nothing in particular but look charming is the current popular story about children for grown people and so on. A painter who ridicules virtue by means of his brush influences far more people than an author whose medium is printed language, because the most indolent and illiterate can read the artist's language, but not the author's.

I trust that I may be pardoned if I use a rather primary-class method to make clear my points. Experience in addressing mothers' clubs has shown me how easily one may be misunderstood without liberal use of concrete illustration for each general principle. On one occasion I deprecated giving to city children their first ideas of farm life and domestic animals through caricatures. I had in mind—but not in hand—a book, which I attempted to describe, citing one picture of a hilarious cow attired in green cap, yellow jacket, and blue trousers, fiddling and dancing a jig for children's amusement. What was my consternation (in view of the possibility that all the audience had similarly misconceived my meaning) to have an anxious little mother come to me after the meeting to say that she was "*so* sorry she had been buying the Peter Rabbit books for her children, she had never thought of their being harmful!" Now Peter Rabbit and his cousin Master Benjamin Bunny do, to be sure, walk on their "behime legs" sometimes, like Uncle Remus's "Bre'r Rabbit." Careful Mrs. Rabbit and Mrs. Bunny do array their wayward sons in tidy little jackets and shoes,

which, like small human boys of our acquaintance, the bunny boys shed the moment they are safely beyond the maternal range of vision. Yet, while the charm of these stories for little children lies in the endowing of familiar animals with the traits of boys and girls, these fascinating bunnies and mice and ducks and froggies of Beatrix Potter are perfectly true pictures, the touch of drollery, of naughtiness, of gloom after spanking and bed, in no way distorting a child's idea of the real animals.

We will, then, like the children, "make believe" we are standing at the picture book counter. Let us first examine a number of books, bearing on their title-pages the names of clever artists and the imprint of reputable publishers, which follow the lines of the colored supplement. Here is a book about a kite's career through space, with a small boy attached to its tail. On one page a mooning poet sitting by the riverside is overturned by the kite, cast into the stream, and drowned. In another a philosopher who has unwittingly seated himself near a hornets' nest which the kite breaks open in passing is rudely driven from his peaceful retreat and returns to society with head swollen and smarting from stings.

Another book relates the adventures of a never-tiring bullet that bursts a tank of scalding water and frightens Bridget; that blows up an automobile and scatters its occupants along the roadside; that severs the rope of a swing, dropping the child passenger to the ground, the end of that bullet's career being reached only when it is flattened in Mrs. Newly-Wed's cake. A third book gives a "humorous" history of the monarchs of England—William the Conqueror "landing" on his head in the mud; Richard the Lion-Hearted thrusting a frowsy head out of the window as he hears the song of languishing Blondel; the Black Prince with grinning countenance and body pierced by arrows projecting at various angles from his person.

I do not believe more examples are necessary. These are types of a large and growing class indicating the conception of the maker of picture books for children to be that their chief, their only end in fact, is to arouse a laugh. Never mind who or what is hurt in feelings or body; do not care if all the virtues we hope to see grow with the growth in our children are jeered at; think it no small matter that we substitute in a child's dream gallery, for the gallant figure of the Black Prince, a grinning image, for the romantic stories of faithful-

ness of vassal to his lord, of the loyalty of a king through hardship and self-denial to the interests of his harrassed people, pictures in hideous purples and yellows that can never be effaced—do not for a minute mind things of this sort, provided only the children are *amused*.

Having rejected the distinctly hurtful picture books, we notice those with neither vicious characteristics to condemn nor positive merits to commend. There are tons of this sort—tame, lifeless, wooden both in matter and execution. I can better illustrate their lack of meat later in pointing out the books which offer a striking contrast to them.

Next we find many studies of children charmingly drawn, which are a snare to mothers who dote on the bare knees and dimples, the wistful eyes and lovely curves of the babies portrayed. There is no question of vulgarity in subject or art here, but there *is* of a live child's long-continued interest in such pictures. Place beside them a book of soldiers or ships or trains, and see what happens. And aren't we glad that children are interested in a life bigger than their own?—for that is what their choice means. A bad feature of modern social work is the inevitable exploitation of the children philanthropists are trying to help. Last spring a photographer took some pictures, wanted for the Child Welfare Exhibit, of our library children's rooms. We tried to manage in the quietest way, but the minute the children saw us they smelled camera, and every youngster except the littlest tried to squeeze in so that his likeness would be recognizable in the print, which (as we found) he expected would appear in the next Sunday's newspaper. It is a pity we cannot give playgrounds and healthful homes to children without making copy, which they will themselves read, of our little ones; but between the photographs in public places from which the originals of the pictures are not excluded, and the beautiful magazine studies of the nursery darlings of the well-to-do, whose women folk admire the pictures in the children's presence, it is small wonder that American children, rich and poor alike, lose something of that most charming of childish graces, un-selfconsciousness.

We should pity the householder who pitied us for boasting a single Shakespeare on our shelves while he could show us a room lined with "Molly Bawns" and "St. Elmos." Even in the purchase of material things we often decide that it is false

economy to buy six cheap articles instead of one good costly one. When we carry this good sense into the purchase of books for children, our own artists and publishers may be encouraged to take the risk of trying to bring America up to foreign countries in the field of picture books. The price in America of Boutet de Monvel's "Joan of Arc" is three dollars, net; but, if I had to let the youngsters go barefooted in summer, they should own it and possessing no other picture book, they would be rich children.

Consider first the possibilities in the subject the artist has taken—for in making pictures for children we must "consider first the subject." I do not myself know the rudiments of art, but I have gathered that it does not make much difference to the art critic whether a painter chooses a dead body or an uncouth peasant, an inscrutable smile or a sunset, for his canvas, provided his genius can make one see in very reality the thing he pictures. De Monvel knew the power of an ideal to stir young hearts, so he chose to tell the story of the Maid who dreamed dreams and saw visions; who knew not to count the cost when heavenly voices told her to exchange her peaceful flock for the perils of the battlefield; who was as gloriously unpractical as a child whose noble impulses have not been choked by learning that one should reckon all values in dollars and cents. The artist felt, too, the appeal of the romance, the color, the pomp of ceremonial in palace and cathedral, the mysticism, the youthfulness of the Middle Ages, to young people of all time. It was not his purpose to illustrate a textbook of history nor to make a book of costume, yet he has given our children an accurate and vivid background for their whole study of the period, in the dress of noble and soldier and peasant, in the banners and trappings and heraldic devices of chivalry, in the frowning walls and quaint market-places of old cities, in the religious processions, the implements of war, and, alas! the way the Middle Ages punished those who dared provoke the jealous hatred of powerful enemies.

The artist's method is equally a model for all makers of picture books for children. His use of strong, clear outlines, simplicity of coloring, and much definite detail which never has the effect of confusing the main thought of a picture, these are characteristics I have found of universal appeal to children.

Of course I have instanced the best and costliest, but, really

aren't children worth it? Even these grubby little nuisances who interfere with our ease, who soil and smash and walk roughshod into our every cherished plan and possession—of such as these came those who have most helped us to make life worth while.

Although the "Joan of Arc" stands in a class by itself, it does not stand alone as a picture book delightful to children and adults. Randolph Caldecott's drawings are (with few exceptions) as perfect in their way. He has chosen the popular rhyming stories of "The House that Jack Built," "John Gilpin," "Where Are You Going, My Pretty Maid?" etc., thus appealing at once to the children's natural and wholesome liking for action and humor and ryhthm. With these for his subjects he gives our children the England they will one day love better for the memory of his thatched cottages and quaint inns, his crooked little cobble-paved village streets, his smocked farmers and stiles and fox-hunting squires. There are grace and delicacy of coloring, spirit and humor in every line.

"Johnny Crow's Garden," by Leslie Brooke, is one of the most successful "funny books" we can buy for little folks. Beginning with the promising first picture, underneath which we read that

"Johnny Crow
Would dig and sow,"

our curiosity is whetted to turn over to the next page, where we learn that Master Johnny persevered

"Till he made a little garden."

Then, accumulating interest because each picture, while it tells much, promises more, we read under a ludicrously vain likeness of the animal in question:

"And the lion"

(keen suspense as the leaf refuses to turn quickly)

"Had a green and yellow tie on."

And so on about the Stork who gave a philosophic talk, the Whale who told such a very long tale that all his wilted victims save polite Johnny Crow slunk away before the end, and then about the Goose who—well, words failed when it came to

describing the fat and silly creature who deliberately squatted on the grass-plot although plainly and politely besought by the sign to "Please keep off the grass"—under the two pictures of the goose we read:

"And the goose—well,
. . . . .
The goose *was* a goose."

I must dismiss with a word Walter Crane's beautiful and imaginative—though to children somewhat confusing—drawings so well suited to the old ballads and folk tales he has chosen to illustrate; Kate Greenaway's quaint and charming little maids in their lovely English setting; the Beatrix Potter books alluded to above; others of Boutet de Monvel, and a most satisfying book called "Four and Twenty Toilers," done by an Englishman, F. D. Bedford.

Having thus far been obliged to go to foreign countries for examples of the best picture books for children, it is a happy opportunity now to notice an American book brought out only this fall, which comes nearer to satisfying our ideals of what a child's picture book should be than anything heretofore done by an American artist. This is "The Farm Book," by E. Boyd Smith. The story, told in a dozen large color prints and many charming black and white sketches, is of the visit of Bob and Betty to their Uncle John's New England farm. Told with the particularity of detail always fascinating to children, and with a cleverness of drawing and composition equally delighting the critic, the children see farm life on its joyous side, with almost the vividness of actual participation in its work and play. The two little people from the city—who, perhaps, have known only of the farmer as the grotesque "Hayseed" of the comic; who have missed the training of doing things for themselves because in the artificial life of the city the apparatus of living obscures the connection between the producer and the town dweller, who gets his milk in bottles, his heat by turning on a valve, his light by touching a button—these children of landscape-gardened parks and paved courts and nurse-guarded walks are turned loose in the country of limitless sky and play-space, where the best play is to help in the real work of raking hay and churning butter and carrying bags of grain to the mill; where, too they gain a new respect

for the dignity and beauty of productive work, which will save them from ever acquiring that absurd sense of superiority which the city dweller, absolutely dependent as he is on the farmer for his very life, so unaccountably takes to himself.

The motive in this book is absolutely perfect, yet no psychological theories obtrude, as in scores of to-day's juveniles contracted for by educational publishing companies, to the destroying of the perfect spontaniety and naturalness of the life depicted. Apparently the artist's only purpose is to give pleasure —and one imagines the fun he must have had himself making the pictures! Yet in his result educators will find a right conception of the child's interest in things beyond his childish day, the life of the man he is every hour growing up to; mothers will rejoice in a story in which children are not the self-conscious centers of the stage but live in happy association with elders who are wiser and stronger than they and who are their dear and sympathetic companions; social workers wishing children to feel the interdependence of rich and poor, the worker with muscle and the worker who plans, far-seeing Americans who deprecate the tendency to look down upon honest hand-work, country people who resent the ignorant ridicule heaped upon them by newspaper supplements and cheap theaters of the city—all will find intense satisfaction in this book. I can only hope that American parents will give such substantial evidence of their appreciation of this work of an American artist that he and others may be encouraged to continue in the good cause, finding no occasion for the remark I once heard from an artist, "It's of no use for a man to put good work into a juvenile. He'd starve if he did. American parents will only buy 'funny things,' that won't cost them more than a quarter."

Many articles have been written on the illustration of children's books. They are, as a rule, chiefly concerned with the art side of the subject rather than the child side. If it seems that one who knows less of the old masters than most grammar school pupils to-day is showing an immense amount of "cheek" to venture to discuss any phase of a subject so great that she can only worship it from afar, my apology must be my belief that children are more important than schools; that to put their best into a book for children is as worthy an artist as it is of a Charles Lamb, a Hawthorne, or a Kipling. If we find

that one method of picture-making better serves to attract the little ones than another, that a picture need not be less beautiful in color and line for being rich in story and suggestion—if even an ignoramus in art but a lover of children lifts up her voice to say some of these things about picture books, we believe that other child lovers will forgive the presumption for the children's sake.

BOOKBUYING

The best reading for the greatest number at the least cost—*Melvil Dewey.*

PURCHASE OF BOOKS

According to Gardner M. Jones, of the Salem Public Library, the methods to be employed in book-purchase depend on the character of the books—whether they are new and standard works regularly on the market or those that are old and scarce.

The following suggestions were made by William F. Poole in the special government report of 1876, already quoted in this series. They are "based on an experience of more than twenty years in the purchasing of books both at home and abroad." The article was a part of the chapter in the report, on "The Organization and Management of Libraries."

It is interesting to note that the principles of book-buying for libraries have changed very little since this article was written nearly fifty years ago, although library science in general has altered greatly in the same period.

A sketch of William F. Poole appears in Volume III of this series.

The lists of books to be purchased having been made, the next question is, how shall they be bought? As a rule, it is best to make all purchases of English books in London, and of French and German books in those countries, because better editions can there be procured, and at cheaper rates, than in this country. The binding, also, can be done in a better and more durable style abroad than in this country, and at half the cost. By the revenue laws of the United States, books for public libraries can be imported duty free. The method is to employ skilled and reliable agents in London—and there are several such agents who make this business a specialty—who will buy books in that market, they having no stock of their own, at the lowest cash price, will cause them to be bound, and will

ship them directly to the library, invoicing them at the original cost price, and charging a reasonable commission for their services. In France and Germany, though the customs of the trade are somewhat different, the method is much the same. All the large libraries in this country buy their books in this way, and find it greatly to their advantage. The smaller libraries, when they make their original purchases, or make considerable additions, can do the same. Application to any of the principal libraries will furnish the information that is needed for securing all the advantages of making purchases in a foreign market. Separate lists must be prepared of the American and foreign orders; and each, for convenience of consultation, should be arranged in alphabetical order under the names of authors. The foreign invoices will come arranged in the same order.

As to the purchase of American books, arrangements can be made with a bookseller to furnish the current American books at a certain rate per cent. from the trade discount. By current American books is meant such works as are on the latest lists of American publishers, and not subscription nor special books. Special books are those on which the usual discounts are not given; they are often published on account of the author, and are indicated as "special" in the lists. It is well to offer a written proposal in this form to different booksellers to fill up the blank left for the rate of discount. Till recently it has been customary for enterprising booksellers to fill up the blank with discounts ranging from 25 to 35 per cent. Some contracts have been made as low as 40 per cent. discount. In the summer of 1874, the booksellers of the country, at a convention at Put-in Bay, entered into a combination by which the discount to libraries was cut down to 20 per cent. That combination still exists, and nearly all the leading houses have gone into it. There was no exigency, except their own pecuniary interests, which required such a combination, and it is one which no library is bound to respect, provided anybody outside of it can be found who will furnish books at the old rates. Publishers have not reduced their discounts to the trade, and except for this combination, books could be bought by libraries as cheaply as formerly. Some of the rules adopted by the Put-in Bay convention were needed and were judicious; but the one relating to libraries was a blunder, because it was

suicidal. No other influence is doing so much in cultivating a taste for reading and a desire to own books as public libraries, and they are the most efficient mode of advertising good books without expense to the publisher or the trade. More books are sold, and private circulating libraries do a better business, where there is a public library than where there is none. The largest discounts should, therefore, be made to libraries.

Arrangements can also be made with the bookseller who supplies the current publications to supply special and subscription books at rates considerably below the trade prices. Rare books and books out of print—and this class includes a large portion of American history and biography—must in each instance be matters of special agreement as to price. Let the person who supplies the general list furnish these books, when he will do it at fair prices; but the committee must be free to reject any part of the books offered the price of which seems to them too high. This part of the purchase calls for considerable knowledge and tact on the part of the committee. If the books are ordered of second-hand dealers, (and none others keep them in stock,) they will cost twice as much as if collected in a more judicious way. These books are constantly appearing in the auction sales in New York and other cities. The auctioneers will send their sale catalogues to any library which makes the request for them in season to send orders. There are responsible men who make it a business in the large cities to attend these sales and buy books, charging a commission of five per cent. on the amount of the purchases, and giving the library the benefit of their experience as to prices, editions, condition of copies, etc. The books bought will be billed and shipped by the auctioneer direct to the library. As auction sales are for cash, it is necessary that prompt remittance should be made. There are few auctioneers of such established reputation for integrity that it is safe to send orders direct to them, and they will bid honestly and charge no commissions; but as a rule, it is better to employ an agent, limiting the bids in some instances, and in others authorizing him to use his discretion. An application to any experienced librarian will give the needful information as to responsible agents in New York and elsewhere.

The writer is well aware that the foregoing recommendations as to the purchase of books will not meet with the approval of some persons engaged in the book trade, especially those who

import books for libraries. These suggestions will appear to them penurious and niggardly. The writer has often had this inquiry addressed to him by gentlemen engaged in the foreign trade: "If libraries import their own books, how is our business to live?" He replies to this inquiry that he is not writing for the information of importers, but in the interest of libraries who are purchasers. The suggestions here given are based on an experience of more than twenty-five years in purchasing books in our own and the foreign markets.

SOME NOTES ON THE PRINCIPLE AND PRACTICE OF BOOKBUYING FOR LIBRARIES

The subject is approached from every angle by Isabel Ely Lord in these alumni lectures delivered before the New York State Library School in June, 1906.

Isabel Ely Lord was born in Saybrook, Conn., February 7, 1871, and received her education in the Hartford public schools, in the Sauveur School of Languages, and at Bryn Mawr College, taking a B.L.S. degree at the New York State Library School in 1897. She was librarian at Bryn Mawr, 1897 to 1903, Pratt Institute free library, 1903 to 1910; and director of the Pratt Institute Department of Household Science and Arts from 1910 to 1920. Since that time she has engaged in business in New York City.

What Miss Lord says of book prices, of course, is largely ancient history; but it is retained here on account of its historical value.

It has long been recognized that the librarian of a public library is in the unusual position of a professional man who must at the same time be a business man. If he be a business man only, he may through admirable administration succeed in a measure; yet he will fail to accomplish what can and should be accomplished through a public library. But, again, if he has the other qualities of love of books, love of people, knowledge of books, knowledge of people—if he has these without business information and business ability, he will fail to do all that he should do, since he will fail to make the best use of the funds at his command. The librarian, with the director of a museum, is alone in requiring commercial knowledge in acquisition, where there is no commercial measure for the use to which he puts the material acquired. The library exists only by the constant

expenditures of money, with no possibility of return in kind. This means that the administrator of such an institution must constantly consider the financial side of his work, while he must gauge results by service to the community. This last is true also, of course, of the administrators of school, college, university, and charitable institution; but the librarian deals in a constant and detailed expenditure of funds that, in its variety and variations, calls for much more time, thought, and experience than that of the heads of such institutions.

Now I suppose that we all agree that the ideal librarian is born, and cannot be made by any training of man. This is surely true as to what we justly consider the higher qualities; but it can hardly be so for the business side. Doubtless, business men are born, also, and, in addition, made, as are all the greatly successful men in any calling; but the born business man is not likely to turn to a profession where the money reward is always small, and business ability can be used only in a limited way. It would seem, therefore, that there must be a good deal of training in the business side of library work, in order that its ends may be more effectively gained.

Any training in business habits, in accuracy, attention to detail, proper subordination of detail, calculation of ultimate loss and gain—any training of this sort, wherever had, can be turned at once to the profit of library work. Almost all of the men who have been most successful as what we call "real" librarians, and have, at the same time, been good administrators, have received no business training applied especially to the library except as they have gained it in practice. But it is quite possible to lay down certain general directions and to state certain general principles so that they may be of service to the novice in the work. That is what is attempted, in a modest way, for the subject of bookbuying, in this paper. It cannot claim to cover the ground or to exhaust the subject, but its statements are founded, in every detail, on experience, and for that reason may have a certain value.

Attention Paid to Bookbuying

Before beginning on the present state of things, let us glance at the attention that has been paid to the subject officially, so to speak, by librarians. When the 1876 conference of li-

brarians was held at Philadelphia, the first attempt by the booktrade to fix the retail price of books was being made, and only 20 per cent. discount from the list (net) price was allowed to librarians. The conference of librarians passed the following resolution, introduced by Mr. Poole:

Resolved, That the discrimination against libraries in the rules of the American Booksellers' Association, which forbids the trade from supplying libraries with books at a greater discount than twenty per cent., is unjust and impolitic, and is a rule which no librarian is bound to respect.

A committee was appointed to deal with the publishers; but the next year they reported that action had become unnecessary, as, to quote the *Publishers' Weekly* of February, "Reform has become a mockery, the *American Book Trade Association almost a myth, the twenty per cent. rule a thirty per cent. rule" —by which is meant no rule at all. In the pages of the LIBRARY JOURNAL there is little as to bookbuying from 1876 to 1901. In 1884 there is an editorial on the subject (9:99); in 1893, at the Chicago conference, Mr. Gardner M. Jones had a paper (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 18:234-235) on the "Accession department" that touched on the subject and brought out some discussion; in 1897, at the Philadelphia conference, Mr. Ernst Lemcke had an admirable paper (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 22:C12-16) on the "Librarian and the importer." Then, in 1901, the net price rule established by the newly-formed organizations, the †American Publishers' Association and the ‡American Booksellers' Association, brought the subject to the fore. The discussions at the Waukesha conference, 1901 (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 26:C31-37; C134-137), the Magnolia conference, 1902 (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 27: C142-146; C153-156), and the Niagara conference, 1903 (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 28:C135-150) were supplemented by discussions and resolutions in state and local clubs, and at the bistate, Atlantic City meeting, 1902 (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 27:134; 142).

At Waukesha in 1901 was appointed the first A. L. A. committee on the relations with the booktrade, and the dealings of this committee with the publishers are to be found reported in the columns of the LIBRARY JOURNAL. The accusation was almost publicly made that the committee did not accomplish what it

* Organized in July, 1874.
† Organized July 25, 1900.
‡ Organization completed March, 1901

might have; but it is yet to be proved that another committee could have done more, and it is highly probable that the hesitancy of the American Publishers' Association to adopt the net fiction rule desired by the American Booksellers' Association (to which reference will be made later) is due to the representations made by the American Library Association committee. The truth seems to be that the publishers wish to try for themselves "what the traffic will bear," and that they will do this regardless of any body of customers.

In 1904 the name of the A. L. A. committee was changed to Committee on bookbuying. This committee has devoted its energies to the publication of a compact bulletin which had been begun by the committee under its old name—a bulletin appearing irregularly, whose object is to suggest to librarians different economies in buying. It has published lists of dealers in second-hand books whose catalogs will be useful, the English and American prices of books it will pay to import, warnings and suggestions of all sorts. Twenty-nine such bulletins have appeared since December, 1903. Mistakes have been made at times, as to facts of price, and certain libraries have attempted to import, urged thereto by the recommendation of the A. L. A. committee, but without the knowledge necessary to make importation a saving. But the mistakes have not been serious, and the very sharpness and promptness with which they have been criticised and corrected shows how much attention is paid to the bulletins. And they have done much to educate librarians in economy of bookbuying. No librarians can afford to ignore them. Bulletin 19 appeared in the *A. L. A. Booklist,* December, 1905, (v. 1, no 8), in which number may be found an Index to Bulletins 1-19. Most of the bulletins are also printed in *Public Libraries,* and few appeared in the LIBRARY JOURNAL and the *Publishers' Weekly*; but a complete set is obtainable only in the separate form. Since 1901 there have been more articles on the subject of bookbuying in the LIBRARY JOURNAL, *Public Libraries* and the commission publications.

It is a fact worthy of attention that the latest formed of the national library associations, that of Denmark, organized in November, 1905 (Danmarks Bogsamlinger), has as its chief and almost its only object the gaining a library discount from the Danish Booksellers' Association. It is worth noting, also, that it was immediately successful, and that all members of the as-

sociation get a discount of 25 per cent. All orders must be sent through the association office and there stamped, a matter simple enough in a country with one publishing center. The Danish Library Association undertakes to discourage the buying of second-hand books, as some offset for the increased discount. All this is significant. It is hard to realize what a difference there is in such an association whose reason for existence is primarily a commercial one, and the American Library Association, whose aims are education and friendly help toward the end for which the means of library work—and among the means book-buying—exist. It is not likely that any one would prefer to change our own association into the more business-like body, nor does it seem probable that the A. L. A. will ever act as a compact and effective business organization for any such definite purpose as that of our good friends the Danes.

The statement regarding the Columbia College School of Library Economy, made by its founder at Buffalo, in 1883, contained no mention of bookbuying as a subject to be taught; but in the prospectus of the school, issued in 1884, this subject is brought out. It has not, however, so far, proved practicable in any of the library schools to give detailed instruction in the subject, with practice.

Bookbuying and Book Selection

It is impossible to separate the question of bookbuying from that of book selection. The amount of money available for the purchase of books is always inadequate to the possibilities of purchase; and in order to use the library funds to the best advantage, certain decisions must be made as to the actual books that shall be bought, and whether these, if books of the day, shall be bought on publication. This last is perhaps the question that one must consider first. Shall new books be bought damp from the press, or is it advisable to wait for any part of them?

Net Prices

This brings us at once to the question, so important to book-buyers, of net prices. In May, 1901, by an agreement between the American Publishers' Association and the American Booksellers' Association, a rule was adopted which is still in force. By it the retailers bind themselves to give, for such books as shall be

published "net," to ordinary retail buyers no discount from the net price to be fixed for each book by its publisher. To special classes of people and to certain institutions, of which the library is one, the retailers may give a discount of 10 per cent. The net price rule must hold for each book for one year after publication, after which time the retailers are free to give any discount they choose. It was understood that fiction, books known as "juvenile," and school books should not be published net; but it was the publishers' stated intention to publish other books at a net price. Feb. 1, 1902, an addition was made to this rule by which copyrighted fiction should be sold at no discount greater than 28 per cent., except that a special discount of 33 per cent. might be given to those entitled to the 10 per cent. on non-fiction. This is commonly spoken of as the "protected" price in fiction. It is not a net price, as fiction, which is almost invariably listed at $1.50, is sold everywhere at a greater or less discount. The practically universal price to private buyers is, indeed, $1.08, giving the full 28 per cent. discount. Jan. 1, 1904, "juveniles" were included in this fiction rule. When the first of these rules was established, it was greeted by librarians generally as a reform, since under the old rule, or lack of it, the booksellers were being rapidly driven out of business in all except the great cities. This was chiefly because the dry goods and department stores sold books as an advertisement, at no profit, or at one so small that no bookseller could compete with them and make a living of any sort. These "cut rates" were a great loss, as they were adopted by firms that treat books as merchandise, to be sold by clerks ignorant of any of their qualities except their price, and make no attempt to keep in stock the best books of all time or of the day, when the ephemeral and well-advertised favorite of the moment is easier to handle. The publishers stated that they would lessen the list price of books so that the net price would be a fair compensation for the loss in discount. A book now published at $1.50, they said, and sold to the average library at $1, would be listed net at $1.25 so that with the 10 per cent. discount the library would pay $1.12½. Although even this increase in price was a serious one to libraries, with their limited funds, it was accepted as fair and, in view of helping the bookseller, desirable. Whether, in these commercial days, there is any body of men who, having a monopoly—for copyright is, of course such—and an iron-bound agreement by which retail

prices are fixed by the manufacturer, could refrain from using this fortuitous combination for their own gain, it is difficult to say. That the publishers are not such a body of men was proved very soon. The continuations of series published at $1.50 were published at $1.50 net; those at $1 were now $1 net, etc. Statistics of such advances have been compiled by librarians, committees, etc., and an advance of at least 24 per cent., by and large, has been proved (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 27:27). The publishers, when their attention was called to this, replied—though neither reply nor retort has been made officially—that there were several causes for this advance, three of which were the increased cost of binding, which is now expected to be ornamental, the increased cost of illustration, and the increased advertising demanded by the authors. To the librarian's retort that a plainer binding and no illustrations would vastly improve most books, and that if advertising increased the expense of a book, it would seem economy to stop it, there has so far been no reply. The *Publishers' Weekly,* in an editorial Feb. 20, 1904 (65:637-638), presents the causes for advance in price. The publishers have replied to criticism that the association has nothing to do with prices—each publisher setting his own—but is concerned only with the maintaining of the prices when fixed. This hardly affects the result, as it is the protection that enables the publisher to raise prices. No facts and figures have been given to prove that the cost of production has increased 24 per cent.—or any other definite amount—since 1901.

The *Publishers' Weekly** will be spoken of later, as a tool for the librarian in making his list of new books, etc., but it has another value that is not always appreciated. It represents the American booktrade, and in its editorials and its articles can be found the expression of the attitude of the trade at a given moment, with trade information and advice of value to the librarian as well as to the bookseller. All this matter should be read regularly, as a part of the knowledge necessary to intelligent buying. The *Book and News Dealer* was the official organ of the American Booksellers' Association, and contained the proceedings of that body, a complete list of net books, a list of the members of the American Publishers' Association, and editorials and notes of interest, but ceased publication in April, 1906.

* $4 a year.

Effect of the Net Price

The great increase in the cost of books of recent publication has made libraries generally hesitate as to their purchase. It is true that numerically considered the proportion of books published net is still small, but books that are "new" in the ordinary sense—new matter, are practically all net. There are published every year certain books of such value and character that it is undoubtedly for the best advantage of the library, in its service to the public, to secure them immediately. And if such books are to be bought, if, indeed, any net book is to be bought before the term of protection has expired, it should be bought as soon as it is published. There is no money advantage in delay and there is a serious disadvantage of moral effect. Those whom the library serves like to have the books that are being reviewed and talked about; and if such books are worth buying at the advanced price, they should be bought at once.

The great question in the selection of books to-day comes in the question of inclusion in this class. If a good book of African travel is published now, when there is no special cause for interest in that country, is it desirable for the library to buy it, when a book on the same subject, quite as well-written, as authoritative and as interesting, was published three years ago and may be had at at least 25 per cent. less than the new book? It can often, indeed, be bought second-hand at 50 per cent. less. Is there an advantage in the newness of the book that makes it worth two equally good in every other way? This is a question that each librarian must decide for himself and for every book. It is quite evident, from their reports, that many of the large libraries of the country have very greatly reduced the proportion of their new books since the net price rule was established. Many of them, also, are even buying more books now with the same money, since they have been forced by the net price rule to buy second-hand books and to import. This is a distinct advantage to the libraries, not only as to the number of books added, but also and chiefly because the quality of the additions is bettered. Formerly many more ephemeral books were added than now, when hesitation about cost brings a delay that enables the librarian to get a better perspective of the book in question. Waiting for a book to be reduced in price may mean finding that it is not worth even the lesser

cost, and so the library is spared a waste of money. It contains less dead and dying wood.

Since the publishers themselves admit that they venture on the publication of many books that they would refuse if they did not count on the library trade, it is probable that they considered the net price as what is known in the picturesque language of the trans-Mississippi region as a hold-up. Free public, and especially municipally supported, libraries, they seem to have argued, must buy what the public wants, and they must buy at any price, short of an obviously outrageous one, that the publisher fixes. The publishers would certainly deny that they reasoned thus, whether consciously or unconsciously, but that they did would seem only a logical deduction from the facts known to us. If they expected this, however, they have been partially disappointed. A sale of fifty copies less of a $4 book makes an appreciable difference in the profits of the edition, and it is certain that the loss has been as great as that in many cases. It seems clear that the libraries in great part, and for the better books, create as well as supply a demand, and that they are now able to create the demand for good books over twelve months old, as they did before for those under that. Publishers create a public demand that is imperative to a library only by advertising enormously, and even then the book must come up to a certain standard. Now there are very few books except novels that bring profit enough to pay for much advertising. And the demand that comes for the more expensive books, as a rule comes from people who are quite open to the argument that it is advisable for the library to get two books instead of one by waiting a little. All this would seem to mean hurting the publication of those books that every good publisher—and most of them *are* good—desires most to see on his lists. Whether this has really happened, it is too early to see. Some publishers and booksellers certainly complain of a falling-off in library trade. And it seems to librarians that there have been more remainders of good books in the market than there used to be. But all this is a question that will settle itself in time.

There has never been any serious intention on the part of libraries of hurting their own interests, even temporarily, by establishing a boycott on net books, but if the present prices are maintained administrators of public library funds must let

their selection of books be affected by the advanced cost of new books. Fewer new books can be bought for the same money, and the purchasing power of the library in this class of books will be diminished. This will have several good results; it will lessen the amount of ephemeral literature bought; it will give time and funds to fill in the valuable books of the past; it will take the librarians out of the position of encouraging the Athenian desire for the new because of its newness.

To mention the practice of certain libraries of giving out the list of the books most asked for in the library for the week or month—the "most popular" books—may seem a stepping aside from the subject of bookbuying, but as a matter of fact it is not. By thus advertising further the much-advertised "best sellers" the library creates a further demand for them, and the necessity of expending more of the library funds to meet this demand for what in nine cases out of ten is ephemeral. That comes down to one side of bookbuying.

The American Booksellers' Association has asked the American Publishers' Association to publish the ordinary novel, now $1.50 "protected," at $1.20 net. If the price of fiction is thus advanced, it will give many a librarian an argument for doing what he has long desired to do—namely, to stop the purchase of new fiction. No librarian can look with pleasant feelings on a row of twenty copies of "When armor was in fashion," idle on the shelves now that the advertisements have ceased. In their place he might have bought twenty volumes that would be serviceable to the end—if he could stop buying new fiction. Whether many libraries will decide to do this if fiction goes up to $1.08 or $1.17 can be told only when this happens, but every librarian would find a certain relief in doing so.

[After this paper was in type the American Publishers' Association, at a meeting Jan. 9, 1907, repealed all the existing rules and regulations of the association having any reference to the prices of books by passing a resolution covering the matter. This plan (LIBRARY JOURNAL, 32: 20) *recommends* the same discounts that hold at present, but all agreements of the sort in the future will be made between the individual publisher and the dealers whom he supplies. This change was made because of the trend of recent judicial decisions as to combinations "in restraint of trade," the one nearest applicable to the booktrade combination being that as to the drug trade combi-

nation, declared illegal by the U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals Dec. 3, 1906.

How much this will change the discount to libraries will be determined by the rules of the individual publishers and by their ability to enforce them.]

The Question of Selection

Each year there is printed a large number of books, and even the smallest library must buy some small proportion of these at once. After this selection for immediate purchase, there remains a mass of matter which can be sorted into classes:

1. Books to be bought as soon as the price is lowered, whether by increase of discount or by second-hand buying.
2. Books to be bought only if obtainable at second hand.
3. Books that may be bought at "remainder" prices.
4. Books that will be accepted as gifts, but not bought.
5. Books that will not be added under any circumstances.

For this last class it is not necessary to keep a full list, though it is advisable to make one for any book that may "sound well," but has been discovered to be valueless. A slip list is, of course, the only possible method of having constantly at hand one's recorded knowledge of such books. How full this list shall be depends on the number and kind of books the library buys, the good memory of the person buying, that person's knowledge of books and authors, and the use of the list. If a librarian who knows exactly what is in the library, can trust his memory for additions, and uses the list himself, he needs to make slips simply for books that he knows only from reviews. But if some one else is to check the list with second-hand catalogs, etc., or if the record is to represent the needs of the library, useful to any one, then all books desirable for the library must be added. For example, the librarian knows perfectly well that he has not the new edition of Grove's "Dictionary of Music," and he does not need to make a slip for his own use, if he has decided to wait for a second-hand copy; but if the list of desirable books is checked by an assistant, Grove should go in, unless the librarian re-checks all lists. From this large and ever-increasing number of titles, additions are chosen as rapidly as they are obtainable advantageously. Such a list is necessary, as a supplement to memory of the possibilities of addition; but if the librarian does not know his library

thoroughly, he cannot even use this to advantage, since it is not possible to collate every catalog that comes in as to every item, nor would such a practice pay.

Method of Listing the Selection

The formation of the list is easier than the selection from it. Every librarian should read the annotated list of the books of the week in the *Publishers' Weekly* as diligently as does the library school student under compulsion. The initial checking for American books should be done there, and the slips made and filed.

The *Cumulative Book Index* also lists all new books, and in a dictionary form so that a book may be found under the title and subject as well as author, but gives no descriptive notes. It cumulates all entries into one alphabet at intervals, which average three months. The *Publishers' Weekly* cumulates quarterly, semi-annually and annually. Both publish "books wanted" lists, elsewhere referred to. The *Publishers' Weekly,* whose value has already been stated, gives also lists of auction sales and trade notes. The Library of Congress galley sheets are of value to the large library, but are too expensive for any other. They record a complete list of copyrighted material, and much other matter, but with few notes that aid much in the selection of books.

If the library can afford the *Cumulative Book Review Digest,* additional information gleaned from that should be added to the slips each month. This periodical gives extracts from the notices of books published in the well-known literary reviews. We all know that book reviews are too laudatory, and in running through the columns of the *Cumulative Book Review Digest,* one finds few quotations that are unfavorable, but the extracts often give information about the book that has not been gained from the *Publishers' Weekly.* The *A. L. A. Booklist* brings its added and more valuable information regarding a carefully chosen selection from the new books, and some check should be adopted—as a letter A—to mark a book approved therein. The literary reviews add their quota. The publishers' lists and announcements come in daily, though most of them are of small value if the other sources are used. There is an advantage, however, in having the books grouped by publishers, as they are nowhere else except in the "Order List" of

the *Publishers' Weekly,* and, for some publishers, in the *Cumulative Book Index,* as such a grouping enables one to discover the general character of the publications of a given house. Soon the librarian using all these means has an impression of some sort, valuable even when vague, as to the character of every book he has listed. For technical books he generally relies on special reviews and on the "men who know"—when he can find them. He includes in his list all notes of desirable editions of standard books. He enters here all notes of out-of-print books or expensive old books that would increase the value of his collection. He has, in short, one single file to consult when he wishes to order a book that he has not.

The library within my knowledge that has the most perfect system of such listing is the John Crerar Library, of Chicago. Mr. C. W. Andrews, the librarian, has been good enough to furnish the following description of the system.

"Titles to be considered are drawn from three sources:

"(1) The examination of 11 book lists (especially Library of Congress, English, French and German trade lists, and *Naturae Novitates*) by the librarian.

"(2) The reading of 102 journals for reviews by the staff.

"(3) Requests of readers. The selection is mainly by the librarian, but all titles not selected for purchase by him are subsequently examined by the reference librarian. The results of the examination are noted as follows (each slip being marked with a number):

"1. Selected for purchase.

"2-1. Out of print; buy at any reasonable price.

"2. Await further information (used for books on the border line, and for new editions—having less than 10 per cent. increase—of books within our field; also, for dissertations and similar pamphlet material.

"2-3. To be bought at reduced price.

"3. Within our field, but not wanted at present.

"4. Will accept as gift.

X. Not wanted at all (used for mere reprints, misleading titles, and trash, but not for books evidently outside the scope of the library.)

"All but class 1 are filed in the official catalog as soon as they can be classified and indexed roughly. As soon as any order is given from class 1, a blue slip giving author and brief

title and order number is placed in the official catalog and remains there until the book has been received, cataloged, shelf-listed, etc., when it is replaced by the completed order card.

"It will be seen that if the work of ordering were up to date, it would not be necessary to look in more than one place for the information in regard to any title, but at present it is necessary to look also in the file of titles selected for purchase.

"The general trend of review notices is indicated by abbreviations as follows:

"f. favorable.

"v. f. very favorable.

"unf. unfavorable.

"f. res. favorable with reservations.

"+ — balanced.

"abstr. no opinion, but considerable excerpts.

"One or two other details are of some importance in our library. Under the heading "Estimated cost" is given the price which the librarian expects to pay for the book. The placing of this price on the card is an instruction to the assistant in the receiving room to approve a charge of that amount or less. This removes the necessity of an inspection by the librarian of more than a very small percentage of the charges. It is hardly necessary to add that this limit is not sent to the agents.

"Another item is the fact that on the order slip the date is that of the bill and not the date of receipt at the library or of the actual accessioning. We have found that this simplifies very greatly reference to the treasurer's records."

It will be seen that this list is an official catalog, including not only books considered for the John Crerar Library, but books received and cataloged. It is therefore the single official collation list, and, as Mr. Andrews says, if the orders up to date were filed, it would be necessary to look only in this one list to collate any book. Such an accumulation of material, even when on slips, is rather appalling, yet the John Crerar official catalog is by no means difficult to use, and the ease with which one can ascertain whether a book is in the library or if not, how desirable it is, is such as to tempt any librarian to undertake a similar one. Such elaboration would indeed be foolish in any but a great library, but a modification of it may be used even for the smallest collection. The greatest immediate ex-

pense is for a filing-case; but catalog card boxes can be used when economy in such matters must be practiced. The amount of time spent on such a list must be justified by its value to the library, and this relation of the two must always be settled by the judgment of the librarian.

Replacements and Duplicates

So far only books that are new to the library may have been considered, but they are by no means the only books added. The replacement of worn-out copies and the addition of needed duplicates make an important part of the business of the order department. Among these the same distinctions can be drawn as for new books. If the worn-out copy is the only one in the library, it comes in for the same consideration as a new book. If it is desirable to replace it, but not desirable to pay the price for a new copy, purchase may be delayed until the opportunity comes to get it cheap. But in that case the cards for the book should be taken from the catalog, and this means time and trouble that may make up the difference in the cost of the book, new or second-hand. And if the book has ever appeared on any of the printed library lists, it should be replaced promptly if at all. It is hard to consider every case of replacement, but it is a fact that it is always a choice between another copy of the book worn out and some book the library has never had, which might be bought with the same money. It is a counsel of perfection to say that every replacement should be as carefully considered as every addition, but one should do one's best to live up to it. A help in this is the liberal use of the "Not to be replaced" stamp on the shelf-list *before* the book has been discarded, when it can be examined and judged easier than after the discarding.

Another help is to stamp the shelf-list card for every book in the "A. L. A. catalog," "A. L. A.," to show that it should be replaced without further consideration. Where it has proved undesirable to replace such a book, the "Not to be replaced" stamp can be used in addition; but, generally speaking, a library desires every A. L. A. book as a permanency—or until the next "A. L. A. catalog" is issued.

The matter is much simpler if there is another copy of the book in the library when the worn-out copy is discarded. Then,

unless there is some special reason, one can wait some time for the opportunity of second-hand buying or for importation. If the shelf-list for every book of fiction be marked with the number of copies desirable for the library, and the shelf-list for all the other books be marked in the same way, but only for those of which more than one copy is needed, much time is saved in deciding as to replacement. A library buys a number of duplicate copies while a book is very popular, or when it is used in a given lecture course; it also acquires by gift duplicates excellent for replacement of worn-out copies. But in each case there may be more copies on the shelves than will be eventually needed. There are five copies of a novel popular to-day, but by the time these are rebound and worn out one copy will supply the demand. The number 1 on the shelf-list will show this to a person who discards four of the copies, and no records of these need go through at all for consideration. In non-fiction, if a second or third copy is added, by gift or for a temporary purpose, of a book of which only one copy is to be kept permanently, the person who crosses out one copy will understand this if there is no mark on the card, and again will send through no record. This has the advantage of enabling one to "stock up" ahead with certain books that are sure to be needed, as the chance to get them offers. If an opportunity arises to get Fiske's "School history of the United States" at 40 cents, when the purchaser is sure that a copy of Fiske will be discarded soon, it is an advantage. And if the shelf-list is marked there is not danger of the copy, which this new one is to replace, being again replaced after being discarded. As to the "standard" novels of which more than one copy is kept, it is almost always possible to replace these soon with good editions at special prices. Such books, which are permanently part of the collection are sure to have constant and hard use, should be replaced by copies in special library binding, where that is possible. In bulletin 6 of the A. L. A. Committee on Bookbuying made the following statement, which should be kept in mind: "The total cost of a book is represented by first cost plus cost of preserving and caring for it during life." It is a good rule to buy what you can of the "standards" referred to, second-hand, and to put in the rest in a special binding.

The greater part of the purchases of the average public library for its children's department are not new books, but re-

placements and duplicates. These it is not so easy to get second-hand in good condition, and in this department, even more than elsewhere, a special library binding is desirable. The question is too large to enter upon here but the subject touches closely on that of bookbuying, as the life of the book depends on the way it is put together. Economical buying secures the binding that insures the largest use for a given cost, and that undoubtedly means, in the case of much used books a special "library binding."

SHALL PUBLIC LIBRARIES BUY FOREIGN LITERATURE FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE FOREIGN POPULATION?

This question is answered satisfactorily by Gratia Countryman, librarian of the Minneapolis Public Library, in a paper read at an Interstate Library Meeting, at Evanston, Ill., on February 22, 1898.

Ten years later, in an address entitled "The Individualizing of the Library," Dr. George E. Vincent says that it is gratifying to know that American prejudice against recognizing foreign languages is dying out. The uniforming tendencies of the age make it certain that the native born of foreign parents are in little danger of escaping English speech, but the parents themselves should not be neglected. A biographical sketch of Miss Countryman appears in Volume III of this series.

This paper does not expect to settle the question raised by the subject "Shall public libraries buy foreign literature for the benefit of the foreign population?" but will try to put into shape the reasons that have gradually brought the writer to the views now held.

We will restrict the meaning of the phrase "foreign literature" to the lighter classes of literature, for no one questions that much of scientific and historical literature and works of classic value must be purchased in the original; but the present question refers to works that will not be used by English readers, but are purchased solely for the foreign element among us.

When the Minneapolis Public Library was opened eight years ago a fairly large number of books in the German, French and Scandinavian languages, and a few in Italian, were put into circulation. A little while after there came a request for some Hebrew books from a number of Jews, who did not desire their children's mental development to be aided solely by means

of English books; consequently, a few Hebrew books were purchased, to the utter discomfiture of the head cataloger. Then came a Welsh minister with a list of Welsh books, and those were bought. The next request was from a colony of French-Canadians who lived near one of the branches. Their list was honored and the books sent to the branch located near them. Finally, the Russians put in their plea and got a small collection of Russian books, and the Italians petitioned for more, and it may be only a question of time before the Hungarians, Poles, Armenians and Japanese file similar petitions and the head cataloger be obliged to resign her position, not being a polyglot dictionary.

Under such experiences, which, I presume, are repeated in every large library, the question naturally arises: Should a library yield to these requests of a foreign element? Is it a proper function of the Public Library to buy books in so many languages, and if so, where shall it draw the line?

For a number of years my views were similar to those expressed in an editorial of the LIBRARY JOURNAL of October, 1894, which were in substance that the purchase of books in foreign languages should be minimized; that the library should not serve to perpetuate the barriers of race and language; that the library should be wholly American, and its influence tend wholly toward Americanizing the foreign-born.

This seemed to me the true view until, happening over at the branch where the French-Canadians were just receiving their new books, I saw them gathering around these treasures like flies around a molasses-jug, and, with heads close together, buzzing with suppressed excitement and delight. I knew then that those few books would bring them happiness for days to come. My previous opinions were shaken, and the question naturally arose: "Were they worse citizens because the city library supplied to them books in their own native tongue? Were they less good Americans because their adopted country and its institutions recognized their peculiar needs?" Nay, verily, I thought not; rather their feeling would be one of gratitude and a sense of obligation that would bind them to the library and this country more than national literature could possibly separate them.

In one of our branches, which is located in a district largely Scandinavian, we have shelved several thousand Scandinavian

books. I have never seen a Scandinavian *child* go near those shelves. I remarked upon this one day to a Norwegian, and asked him if he didn't want his children to keep their language and a knowledge of their native literature. He answered, in broken English, to the effect that his children had to live in this country and he wanted them to keep to our language and our books and our customs. I asked him if that feeling was quite general, and he answered that it was, so far as he knew; and then he added that his children could not be made to read anything but English if he wanted them to. That did not sound as if the foreign literature in the library were producing anything but American loyalty. Certainly this Norwegian wanted his children to be American, and his children insisted upon being American. He himself wanted books in his own language, but that did not keep up in his mind any race barrier.

The night schools in our cities are attended very largely by foreigners—young men who are anxious to read and speak our language, who look forward to being American citizens. The library does not need to supply foreign literature to any extent for them or the children. But the older ones can scarcely be expected to forget their fatherland or to cease loving their mother tongue. Besides this, they either speak English with difficulty or not at all, so that if they cannot get any books in their own tongue they will be likely to read nothing at all. It does not appear that the library would be making better citizens of them by doing nothing at all for them than if it supplied them with books they could read.

What, on the whole, could be more Americanizing than the feeling of loyalty which these alien people would soon feel for the cosmopolitan library that welcomes them and in which they have a part and a place?

I believe still that the library should be an Americanizing institution, but it must reach these people before it can Americanize them, and if it succeeds in making any one of them more contented and happy it has to that extent made him a more loyal American. Moreover, will not this land of his adoption profit more by the foreigner whose intelligence is increased, even if it is done through the medium of his own language? Discontent with surroundings and ignorance are the causes of rebellion and disloyalty to one's country, and both of these the library may help to dispel from the foreigner.

In the 25 years ending with 1895 one-third of the increase of our population was from foreign immigration; great numbers of these were paupers and illiterates, who join the ranks of the anarchists and learn to rail against us. If these foreigners become insane, we care for them in our hospitals; if they become criminal, we pay for bringing them to justice and keeping up the machinery of reformatories and prisons. The public funds are drawn upon continually in their behalf. It is certainly just as legitimate a use of public funds that some of it be used by the public library for the elevation of these same men and women. The money spent in foreign literature may mean just that much less for prisons and asylums. It is the ounce of prevention.

We are accustomed to use all of our ingenuity to attract to our libraries the illiterate of our own race; we urge the children to come, and allure them with picture-books and pleasant rooms; we want the newsboy and the factory girl, but we want also the maids in our kitchens and the foreign laborer who digs on our streets. Every reason which justifies our efforts to attract in the one instance does in the other, and if foreign literature is the bait which will draw the foreign element, then it is as legitimate as any attraction that we use.

One objection urged against the purchase of books in foreign languages is that we exclude from 75 to 80 per cent. of the readers from using the book, but that might be said of almost any class in the library. Why purchase technical books, or professional books, or rare and valuable books? for fully 80 per cent. of the readers will be excluded from using them. It cannot be a wrong to these 80 per cent. of the readers that the other 20 per cent. are getting what they want. It is for the benefit of the whole community that every part of it should be enlightened.

But the library, while having obligations to the state in the way of making good citizens, and to the community to spend the funds legitimately, has obligations also toward the individual. There are strangers within our city gates to whom we owe hospitalities and whose lives we can cheer. How many times do we hear of the loneliness of these people who have been transplanted, and how their loneliness drives them into morbidness and to the verge of insanity. Their mental growth is stopped and their lives stagnated. The library owes something to every individual man, woman and child. The library has no

better cause for existence than to bring sunshine into individual lives, and it has not wholly fulfilled its mission if it leaves whole masses of people unreached.

It would be more difficult to reach any conclusion as to where a library shall draw the line in providing for different nationalities. The state of library finances usually settles the fact that there must be a line. We cannot do all that we would do, and different conditions make the problem different in every library.

In theory, even if not possible in practice, it would seem that any nationality which had a desire for the books and interest and enterprise enough to ask for them ought to have them, even if it must be in small quantities. The very asking is the furnishing of an opportunity. If we do not have to seek them in the highways and hedges, but find them actually knocking at the door, they surely ought to have a seat at the feast. This might be impracticable and even impossible in many libraries, but up to the present date the Minneapolis Public Library has never refused a request from any nationality, even if the finances allowed but a small outlay. We believe that by this means of drawing them to us we will amalgamate them most rapidly, and by contact will dissolve race prejudice.

To sum up, we believe that the buying of foreign literature will help rather than hinder to foster Americanism. We believe that it is a legitimate use of public funds, and that it meets a duty which we actually owe to these strangers. We believe, also, that it is true of libraries, as of individuals, that "He liveth best who *loveth* best."

BOOKBUYING FOR A SMALL CHILDREN'S ROOM

Very specific directions given by Caroline Burnite (now Mrs. R. R. Walker) who at the time of the writing was director of children's work in the Cleveland Public Library. She advises the building up of the collection from two angles, work with schools and culture, with emphasis on editions. For biographical data, consult Volume II of this series.

1) Set aside a definite proposition of the book fund for children's books, otherwise the demands of the adults for certain books will crowd out the needs of the children. This proposition should be, in ordinary circumstances, not more than one-fourth of the total fund, and probably not less than one-fifth.

2) Aim to have your books average 60 cents ($.60) each (actual cost). This does not mean that no book costing more than $1 list should be bought, but that care should be taken to buy inexpensive editions as often as possible, in order that a few well-illustrated books may be bought.

3) A good guide for book selection and for inexpensive editions is a Child's library, by Prentice and Power (Cleveland normal school, price, $.25).

4) Build up your children's collection from two sides, the school side and the cultural side. Keep a list of all school subjects on which you have no good material and study the new Pittsburgh school catalog (price, $.50) for suggestions for books along the subject desired. As an aid in building up your library from the cultural side, use Miss Moore's list of Books for a children's library (Iowa library commission), Miss Hunt's The child's own library (Brooklyn public library) and Christmas books for children (Cleveland public library).

5) For the sake of discount, buy all the children's books for the year at one time, reserving a few dollars for emergency needs. By placing this order in the early spring there is ample

time to get the books cataloged before the heavier work of the winter. If it is deemed better, the books may be placed on the shelves a few at a time.

6) Buy no new fiction unless asked for by title, and do not buy a requested title until it is listed in the *A. L. A. Book List, The Carnegie Library Bulletin,* or the *Cleveland Library Open Shelf.*

7) Buy a few beautiful editions of books which are acknowledged to be classic (such as the Wonderbook, with the Crane illustrations), and if the book fund is very small, keep these for room use and use cheaper editions for circulation.

8) Buy the Crane, Caldecott and Greenaway picture books and keep them for room use. Buy for circulation the inexpensive little readers given in the lists mentioned.

9) Study the catalogs of second-hand dealers who offer new books at a special discount. Where titles desired can be bought this way the discount is larger than a bookseller's. In buying this way the cost of transportation must be included, which may make the actual cost more instead of less than the usual price.

10) Always specify editions and do not buy from publishers' lists which do not specify editions.

CAROLINE BURNITE,

Director of children's work, Cleveland public library—*In Ohio state library bulletin.*

CLASSIFICATION

The classification of books on the shelves of the British Museum library does not amount to the enumeration of all the subjects which might suitably be recognized as distinct in a classified catalog, but only of such as possess sufficient importance to occupy at least one book press in the library. Subjects which from a philosophical point of view might properly be separated, must in actual library arrangements frequently be combined for want of room.

—*Richard Garnett.*

In the early days of classification, almost every American librarian devised his own system, so that besides the outstanding survivors, those of Dewey and Cutter, there were advocated those of Schwartz (the Apprentices' Library, New York), Noyes (the Brooklyn Library), Harris (St. Louis Public School Library), Perkins (San Francisco Public Library), that of the Astor Library (New York) and many others. The Library of Congress has always used its own system, emphasized by the wide distribution of its cards.—*A. E. B.*

CLOSE CLASSIFICATION

A paper written by Charles Ammi Cutter to refute certain criticisms of such classification systems as the Dewey Decimal and his own Expansive. Mr. Cutter says that the phrase "a classification which should bring absolutely everything in the library on each subject in one place" is merely comparative, meaning a minuter classification than has hitherto been customary. A sketch of Mr. Cutter will be found in Volume IV of this series.

The first charge in the late joint review of Mr. Dewey's Decimal system is not confined to that system, but applies to all that are worked out into detail; and there is no reason why Ucalegon's neighbor should not take measures to secure himself. It will be most convenient to take up the review paragraph by paragraph, but to include some reasons in favor of minute classing which are not in reply to the arguments of the review and perhaps would be accepted by its authors.

The writers seek to minimize the merit of Mr. Dewey's (and of course of all similar systems) by declaring that the convenience afforded in its close classification—if there is any convenience—is obtained only in libraries where readers are permitted to go to the shelves. This of itself, by the way, would be considerable, for it applies to most of the mercantile, nearly all the proprietary libraries, and all the college libraries (in which the professors always and often the students are allowed free range). A scheme is good that will accommodate so many readers, even if the general public of our town and city libraries would get nothing from it. But this is not all. In the first place, the exclusion from the shelves, where it appears in the rules, is seldom absolute. So far as my observation goes, there are no town or city libraries in which some favored persons are not allowed to see the books themselves *in situ,* and these are always not desultory readers, but scholars, the very persons who

will be most benefited by close classification—that is, by bringing together the books on small topics. And secondly, where the exclusion of the public from behind the bars is rigid there is all the more reason for a method which will enable the librarian to supply with the least delay the information that in more fortunate libraries the inquirer can get for himself. My own library is used in both ways. Some go directly to the alcoves; some come to me to know what is to be had on different subjects; and if I am an advocate of minute classification, it is because in an experience of many years I have learned to appreciate the aid it gives me in those parts of the library which are well arranged, and because I have been annoyed by the checks and delays which want of it has caused me in parts as yet ill ordered. Of course the catalog is an aid in the same direction; I certainly should be very sorry not to have our printed volume and our cards; but it is as true for the librarian as for the student that the best catalog is the books themselves. The catalog answers a different class of questions or answers the same questions in a different way. If it is well made, it comes nearer bringing everything together than the shelves can ever do; but it does not show the character of the books as well as does a glance at them or the mere sight of their outsides to one who has seen them before. The difference is like that between text-books and object teaching.

In fact to the scholar a book on the shelves is worth two in the catalog.

I must begin by saying that the close classification which I was led to make by finding on trial the insufficiency of the first Decimal System, (a judgment which was confirmed by Mr. Larned's additions to the Amherst system, and still more by Mr. Dewey's new edition) is not that absurd idea against which the Duet has directed its arguments—a classification which should bring absolutely everything in the library on each subject into one place. This Mr. Dewey claimed as the effect of close classification; he never thought or spoke of it as its essence. The phrase is merely a comparative term, meaning minuter classification than has hitherto been customary, minuter than Mr. Smith's or Mr. Edmands's or Mr. Schwartz's or Mr. Dewey's original scheme. We believe that for large libraries and for some subjects in smaller ones and for particular subjects in special ones, utility is served by carrying the subdivision of classes farther than has usually been done.

The Duet's criticism of Mr. Dewey under this head is rather verbal than practical. He had said—enthusiastically and without proper limitation—that "all the books on a given subject are found standing together, and no additions or changes can ever separate them." Messrs. Perkins and Schwartz, taking the word "all" in its strictest, most absolute sense, show that this is claiming an impossibility, (1) because of the existence of special collections which take books out of the general classification, and because the necessity of separating folios and duodecimos practically amounts to the same thing; and (2) because some books treat of several subjects, and, of course, can only be put in one place.

Every one who has bestowed any thought on classification knew this before, Mr. Dewey as well as the rest, as his very next sentence indicates—"Not only are all the books on the subject sought found together but the most nearly allied subjects precede and follow," because the chief advantage of having allied subjects near at hand is that the books on them are likely to treat in part on "the subject sought."

Possibly some novices and hasty readers have been deceived by this unlimited claim,* and have overestimated his system in consequence. He should have said, "All that it is on the whole desirable to get together."

As a criticism on Mr. Dewey's style the Duet's point may have been well taken; as a criticism of his classification it is nugatory; for it applies equally to every classification that has ever been made or ever will be made. It is a necessary drawback to any possible system. Indeed, altho the matter seems to be urged seriously, it is so evident that no man of the slightest experience in the work could have imagined it possible by any method (short of taking books to pieces) to get together *everything* in the library relating to more than one or two subjects (of course it can be done for a few that do not conflict) that one is tempted to regard the whole section as mere badinage.

* It has been represented to me that a sentence on p. 98 of the "Decimal classification" goes even farther than this. It is: "Every *subject* thus being a library by itself shows at once resources and wants *as no catalog can show them.*" (The italics are mine.) This is supposed to mean that everyone of the sections contains all the literature there is on it in the library. I think, however, that in the mind of the writer the main idea was what I have expressed above, that one gets a much better notion of what the library has on a subject from seeing the books in the alcove than one can from a list of their titles; and that the careful and thorough arrangement of the works themselves makes this notion clearer still, exactly as the arrangement of titles in the catalog enables one to apprehend them more easily.

All-collecting classification, "is impossible except with exceptions." But it is possible with them, and they do not seriously diminish the value of minuteness. Leaving out Juvenile Works and Special Bequests, I have all the parallel libraries that the Duet mentions, and I have the additional collection often called the "Inferno." To see *all* that we have on any one topic a man may have to consult (1) the general library, (2) the obsolete library, (3) the pamphlets, (4) the costly books, (5) the inferno. But he would have to consult them all just as much whether they were divided minutely or not, and he can consult them much more easily because they are classified closely. And once he has learned in what section any subject occurs in one collection, he knows just where to look for it in all the others, In that respect my method is like the practice of having the same geographical divisions under every country.

If my only object were a defence of Mr. Dewey I might stop here; but I desire also to show that the arguments adduced against the use of the word "all" do not prove in any degree the inexpediencey of thorough subdivision, as might appear to a hasty reader; in other words that, what is true of the mistaken close classification does not apply to the real.

First, of the difficulty arising from the difference in the sizes of books. Everyone must separate his folios from his duodecimos at any rate. The careful internal arrangement of the one and the other size does not remove them any farther from one another, and, as in the case of the parallel libraries, it does make it easier to use the two in connection. The actual linear distance from the octavos to the folios of the same class is usually no greater in close than in broad classification, that is to say, in both cases the folios are under the octavos in the same section of shelves. In close classification it sometimes (not often) happens that the folios may be in the next division or the next but one. But it is found that this works no harm. If (A) a man is getting a book for which he has the shelf-mark and therefore knows it to be a folio, he does not look at the octavos at all, but merely runs his eye along the folio series of numbers. It matters nothing to him how far off the octavos are. And if (B) he is looking for all the books on a subject the only disadvantage is that he has to step aside a yard or two, or in extreme cases three. He cannot fail to find it. The books are arranged in the two sizes in precisely the same order; the

mark is the same. If he was looking at class s9 among the octavos he has only to glance among the folios beyond s7 and s8. That anyone should make much of this as a difficulty in the way of close classification must be because he has never tried the experiment.

The same considerations apply to the difficulties arising from books discussing two or more subjects, and from books on different subjects, being bound together and from important treatises on one subject being part of books on other subjects. These are evils in broad as well as in close classing. They show what they were intended to—that the word "all" was wrongly used; but they must not be taken by the incautious reader as furnishing any objection whatever to minute classification.

3. A third reason also merely shows the impossibility of close classification in the misunderstood sense. "If we go on subdividing till we reach the lowest possible point, we must look under each of our divisions if we wish to get 'all' the books on one of the species. Each successive subdivision intensifies the difficulty of keeping all the books on a subject together." Of keeping them under one mark, yes; but not of keeping them together. Grouping books does not remove the books from one another at all, that is, they are physically *no farther off* than they were before subdivision. The misapprehension on this point is so widespread that I must be allowed to take a little space to make the matter clear. Suppose there are 500 books on animals, occupying 25 shelves. You subdivide them. They still occupy the same 25 shelves. "All" the books on the dog are as much together as they were before; those of them which treat of the dog alone are more together. To find every word that those 500 works contain on the dog, you do not have to look over more shelves, you do not have to look into more books; you simply look at the same books on the same shelves in a different order. The only difference is that, whereas before all were marked say K, now they may be marked K, KA, KB, KC, etc., and the special dog books may be KXA.

Let me take one other example. In the explanation of Mr. Schwartz's alphabetico-mnemonic scheme, occurs the following passage (Lib. jnl., 10:372): "An inquirer interested in the literature of chess is directed to class 982, where on one shelf he will find all there is on the related subjects, cards, checkers, and chess. His eye takes in the whole shelf at a glance, and he can

more easily pick out the books on chess, than he could find them in a fine-spun system where, although the actual books were no more in number, it was thought necessary to arrange the Chess literature separately." Mr. Schwartz's is not at all a bad arrangement, but in the Boston Athenæum is a better. We have now* 76 works on these three subjects, arranged in groups in the following order, 27 works on Cards, 48 on Chess, 1 on Checkers. Mr. Schwartz would have these groups mixed together in one alphabetical arrangement, first, perhaps, a book on whist, then some on chess, then one on euchre, then one on checkers, and so on as the hazard of the alphabet required. To find the one book on checkers, a man might have to look over the whole 76 vols., and to find "all" the books on chess one must scan the whole 76. But at the Athenæum, this is no great trouble, because the works on chess have a number of their own, and a place to themselves, to which one goes directly, just as in Mr. Schwartz's scheme, one goes to the books on Sports. Even supposing one had to look a little to find the Chess books, the instant a man has found one, he has found all, for they stand side by side. If the books were "no more in number" than in Mr. Schwartz's library, they would also be on one shelf, but as three groups. It is not easy to see why the inquirer's eye could not take in the whole shelf at a glance in one case as well as in the other, and why in Mr. Schwartz's plan "he can more easily pick out the books on chess," which are mixed up with other books, "than he could find them in a fine-spun system," where they would be already picked out for him, and put together by the shelf arranger.

I have frequently met with this same fallacy in the advocates of broad classification. They seem to have an idea that books are physically separated by minute classification; that if you have, say, ten shelves-full of books on the history of England, and pick out one shelf-full on the Elizabethan age, and another on the Georgian era, which you put on the fifth and sixth shelves, leaving the first to the fourth for the undivided books, you have somehow made it harder for the inquirer to find books on the Four Georges or memoirs of the court of Elizabeth, as if you had carried them off to another part of the library.

* I say *now*, for, if any one thinks 76 a small number of books to divide, it must be remembered that libraries grow. In thirty years at our present rate of increase we may have 150. One must have a little foresight.

Whereas, in fact, you have made it easier for him, if he has any gumption, and no harder if he hasn't. At the worst he has only the same six shelves to look over that he had before. The man who doesn't like classification has only to disregard it; the man who knows how to use it is assisted by it. The fact is, that, there is the same reason for segregating the books on chess from the other game books that there is for segregating the game books from the other sport books, and those from the rest of the library. The reason is the same, but of course it does not apply so strongly. Whenever you have a well marked subject, put the books on it by themselves, even if there are only two, provided your notation will allow it. There are some cases where one cannot get minute classing without very long book numbers. And it may be that the inconvenience caused by a long book-number will exceed the inconvenience caused by insufficient classification.* But a whole system of notation cannot be proved to be inconvenient by quoting a few exceptional instances of long marks.

Their fourth reason is that "this process of division, if carried to its logical result, ends in a *reductio ad absurdum.* If we want to keep *every distinct* subject by itself, we are obliged to provide a separate place in our scheme for every variety of animal, vegetable, and mineral, for every king that ever reigned, and for every author that has written." Not exactly. There are not books on "every variety of animal," etc. Leaving out of view difficulties of notation, there is no objection to the fifty million heads the Duet calls for, when we have books treating of fifty million subjects; till then no one is bound to provide so many heads, but only the possibility of so many; and that is afforded by the decimal system. Exactly as the decimal author table now in use at the Boston Athenæum, and other libraries provides potential places for millions of authors instead of the 1000 who were provided for by the table as invented for the first time by Mr. Schwartz, so the decimal system of classification as now used by Mr. Dewey gives room for illimitable subdivision in place of the 1000 heads of his first scheme.

Moreover, every book in a library must have a number, or mark of some kind that will distinguish it from every other

* It happens that in the example selected by Mr. Schwartz his notation for the composite class cards, checkers, and chess (982) has three characters, while the Athenæum notation has only two for Cards (sw), two for Chess (sx), and three for checkers (sxc).

book. This is absolutely necessary for purposes of getting and charging the books and for other administrative processes. Do not, then, complain of the scheme that separates the books on different kings, for all must separate them either by the author notation or the class notation. Complain of that scheme which does not get together the books on the same king, and scatters them through the histories of the country.

But the *reductio ad absurdum*—which, by the way is a very poor argument when applied to practical matters, life being made up of compromises—does not apply here. The practice of division by distinct subjects is advocated on the ground that it is convenient, which it certainly is up to a certain point. If beyond that point it ceases to be convenient, or entails greater inconveniences, the reason for it ceases to operate, and we do not advocate it. The real question is, what is that point? We say that it differs for libraries of different size or character. Mr. Schwartz says that for all libraries it exactly corresponds with the 1000 divisions of his scheme. Here is an irreconcilable difference of opinion which cannot be settled by argument. I can only state it and let classifiers decide.

5. "Finally," we are told, "the whole idea of close classification rests on a transparent fallacy. It takes for granted that books can and must be classified on one principle only—namely, according to their subject. This is a complete mistake." It certainly is, but the mistake here is made by Duo and not by Dui. Even if "close classification" were used in the Duet's sense, it would not exclude form classes, because a very large part of imaginative literature can only by a great misuse of language be said to have any subject at all, consequently no subject class would take them in and there must be form divisions for them. But, as I have before said, this is not what anybody means by "close classification." Mr. Dewey's system, Mr. Larned's and mine all include form classes; and that very fact ought to have shown the Duet's authors that they had misunderstood the idea.

The various arguments that were urged against impossible classification having been shown to have no application to minute classification, there only remains one objection to the latter,—that it requires long marks. This is indisputable, yet even here the case is not so strong as it is represented.

In the first place, one must have distinct author and work

marks for each book, and that means more characters the larger the class is and the less the smaller it is. Minute classing which requires more characters in the subject mark, enables us to get along with less in the author-mark. Indeed, in a small library where minute subdivisions have and are likely hereafter to have few books, and absolutely exact alphabetizing among half a dozen authors is of little importance, a single character is quite enough to designate each, and no work mark need be used, unless there are two works by the same author.

In the second place by a suitable notation the length of marks can be very greatly diminished. If only the 10 Arabic figures are used and the scheme is not especially arranged with a view to economy of characters, the marks will be very long in some parts, particularly in a special library or in a specially developed part of a general library. But if the capacities of the alphabet and the numerals are both utilized the marks need not be in general long enough to cause any difficulty whatever, and in a large number of classes it will be very short. The use of 36 base necessarily gives 36 classes with only one character, 1296 with only two (almost all of which would be used), and 46,566 with three characters, of which perhaps half would be used, the remainder coming in classes which do not need subdivision. In other classes where division needs to be pushed farther, chiefly the history and geography of the main countries, especially local history and geography, more characters are required. A count of the characters in the *class marks* of the works which I received last May gave the following results:

One character,	37
Two characters,	25
Three "	47
Four "	12
Five "	7
Six "	3
Total 329 characters in 131 cases.	

Average, 2½ characters.
Average in all classes but fiction, 3 characters.

The average of characters in the author-marks in 31 cases of fiction (where the class-mark has *one*) was less than *five* or the total book-mark for fiction averaged less than *six*.

In the other classes the average author-marks had 3½, and

the average total book-mark nearly 6½. Including fiction, the average total book-mark had 6⅓. Now we mark our books with more characters than is necessary for the present size of the library. This average may be considered to be what is appropriate to a library of half a million. It seems to me that the advantages which I find in minute classification are cheaply purchased by the addition of a third of a character to our book-mark. As for the dreadful consequences which are supposed to flow from the mixture of letters and numbers, as we have not felt them in an experience of five years, they do not frighten us.

SOME THOUGHTS ON CLOSE CLASSIFICATION

A plea for the adoption of close classification by public libraries, was written in 1887 by George Watson Cole, then librarian of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn. Mr. A. L. Voge, formerly reference librarian of the Mechanics' Mercantile Library in San Francisco, states in a paper on "Classification-making," written in 1917, that "in these days of open shelves it is unnecessary to defend the value of close classification." When the article given below was written, it was still a vital question.

George Watson Cole was born on September 6, 1850 at Warren, Conn., attended Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., was admitted to the bar in 1876, after which he practiced law until 1885. In 1888, he graduated from the Library School of Columbia University. He served as librarian at Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, in 1886 to 1887, as assistant in the Newberry Library, Chicago, in 1888 to 1890, and as librarian of the Free Public Library of Jersey City, N.J., in 1891 to 1895. He has since devoted himself to biographical work and from 1915 to 1924 was librarian of the private library of Henry E. Huntington in Los Angeles, Cal.

If ever library work is to be raised to the dignity of a science, it must be done by comparative study. The importance of this work cannot well be over-estimated. Perhaps in no branch of the work, will this study result in richer fruit than in the field of classification. No little attention has been paid to the subject of close classification by our profession for the past few years, more particularly within the past two years. By this term, I understand, is meant the arrangement of books upon the shelves by specific subjects or forms, which follow

each other in an orderly and systematic sequence. The first instinct of the librarian is to divide his books into broad classes; as history, science, travels, biography, etc. This has generally been done in all libraries; and, as they have increased in size, the tendency has naturally been to increase the number of these divisions or classes, either by making new ones, or by breaking up the old ones. Some form of classification is essential, and is recommended by all librarians of experience.

The disadvantages arising from broad classification are sought to be overcome in the catalogues, where we almost invariably find an attempt made to catalogue by subjects, a greater number of subjects even than are recognized upon the shelves. So that, until a recent period, the close classification of the library was done, if at all, in its catalogues rather than upon the shelves; and that catalogue was the most excellent, other things being equal, which carried close classification to the furthest extent. Close classification, therefore, I consider to be but the natural result of a healthy growth in library work, and it may be attributed almost entirely to the abandonment of a fixed location for a relative one.

Fixed vs. Relative Location

Formerly every library was arranged and numbered by a fixed location. The alcoves, sections, and shelves were first numbered, and then the books were placed upon the shelves, and numbered in regular numerical order until the capacity of each shelf was exhausted. At first, as we have already indicated, some attempt was made to keep different subjects separate by assigning certain alcoves or portions of the library to special topics. As the library grew, it usually expanded in unlooked for directions, and as a natural result the spaces assigned to some subjects were often filled to overflowing, long before others were at all crowded. As a result the subject, instead of being found in the place originally assigned to it, was frequently found in several different parts of the library, it might be at quite a distance from each other. The disadvantage of this system soon became apparent to every one using it. Not until within a few years, however, has a relative or movable location, or a system of assigning a number to a subject or topic, instead of to a certain location in the library,

been generally adopted. This has been found so great an advantage over the old method, that it is almost entirely used in the arrangement of new libraries as well as in the re-arrangement of many old ones. Its great advantage lies in the fact that by moving the books along upon the shelves, or better still by leaving spaces at the end of each subject, all books upon that subject may be kept together by interpolation.

It has been said, that by the old methods the books were usually divided into broad classes. It was but natural, therefore, that with the adoption of a relative location, the old ideas as to the number of subjects employed should at first prevail. As a consequence we find the first libraries arranged by the relative location were divided into a small number of classes. It soon became apparent that more classes could be employed to advantage. As the relative location was used and better understood, it grew in favor, and the question of close classification has since come to the front as a natural outgrowth of its use. The questions that now most imperatively demand our attention are these: how far is it practicable and desirable to carry the division of the library by subjects and their subdivisions; what advantages are to be derived from close classification; and what obstacles lie in the way of its general adoption?

Close Classification in the Catalog vs. the Shelves

It has long been the cataloguer's rule to enter each work under its specific subject. Without entering into any discussion as to the best form of the catalogue, whether classed or alphabetical, which is a question that needs special time for its treatment, the question arises whether, as far as practicable, a corresponding minuteness shall not be employed in shelving the books of a library. Some librarians acknowledge the necessity of having the catalogue minutely subdivided, each topic appearing under its most specific head; but at the same time they are unwilling to admit that a corresponding minuteness in the arrangement of the books themselves is to be desired. Others see in such an arrangement, not only a great advantage in the ease and economy with which the library may be administered, but also that its usefulness as an educational power is increased and that a far-reaching and beneficient influence is exerted upon its patrons. Its advocates do not and never have claimed to

accomplish the impossible or the impracticable; but they do claim, as far as possible, to transfer the advantages of close classification from the catalogue to the shelves; to make the shelves their own catalogue. Close classification seeks to make the library more useful and available by arranging its resources in minute classes. This is of primary value to those who are in the library, as it enables them the more readily to ascertain the resources of the library upon a specific topic. It may be claimed that this is the function of the catalogue, which is true. The catalogue should give the resources of the library more fully than the shelves can possibly do. It is true that we cannot have the entire resources of the library standing side by side upon the shelves, unless we can take some of our books apart, and in some cases perform the impossible feat of making them occupy two distinct places at the same time; but all this does not and never can compensate for the advantages derived from having books which treat of the same specific topic grouped together upon the shelves, and these groups arranged in some systematic and natural order. The catalogue has certain functions and advantages that cannot in the nature of things be relegated to the shelves. Because close classification does not accomplish what it never attempted or because it was not used by our grandfathers, is no argument against it. Our grandfathers never used the telephone nor attempted to light their drawing-rooms or libraries by electricity, but we do both. The advantages of close classification are found to be many, not only by librarians, but by the users of libraries. The idea is based upon practical and economical considerations, rather than upon any utopian theories. The advantages are far in excess of its cost. Instead of confining itself to the narrow views of library management, quite generally entertained until within a few years, it attempts to reap the reward of comparative study. It is progressive as well as aggressive. It starts upon the basis of utilizing the best and ripest experience of the past and seeks to avoid the errors and obstacles to success, that were a constant source of trouble and anxiety to our predecessors. Business methods are as necessary in the management of a library as in any other of the affairs of life; and that library will be the most successful, other things being equal, that is conducted in a thorough-going business manner. Close classification is a step in this direction. It is an attempt to do

once for all, as far as practicable, the work of the library. If the work is worth doing at all, it is worth doing in a thorough and systematic manner, rather than in the slip-shod way in which it is too frequently done. It attempts first of all, to determine into how many classes of subjects and subordinate divisions it is wise and practicable to divide the library, bearing constantly in mind the demands of its future growth. Library work in the past has consisted too much in undoing what has already been done; a misapplication, if not a positive waste of energy, that close classification endeavors to avoid. In the end it may safely be questioned whether it costs any more than the old methods, while the results are far more satisfactory in every respect.

Existing Systems of Classification

There are several systems of classification now in use, and with which you are all more or less familiar, among which may be named those of Messrs. Cutter, Dewey, Edmands, Perkins, Schwartz, and Smith. Whether any of these systems will be in use, outside of the libraries in which they were developed, fifty years hence, time alone will reveal. Of one thing we may rest assured — that the law of the "survival of the fittest" will be inexorably and impartially applied. In the discussions of these systems we have at times witnessed a warmth and censoriousness, begotten more of personal interest than of fair and impartial criticism. In these discussions much use has been made of the terms "natural" order, "logical" system, etc, which I think have been given an undue prominence. To my mind, the terms "practical" order or "orderly arrangement" are to be preferred, not so much in describing the system as such, as in denoting their uses and aims. The utmost skill of man has failed, as yet, to devise a complete circle of knowledge, and until this is done no system of classification can be in the fullest acceptation of the terms considered either "logical" or "natural." The coming system, if it has not already been invented, will be the one that combines in the best manner the logical, natural, practical, and orderly arrangements of books in the library.

Alphabetical Index

This system must have an alphabetical index to make its application easy and certain. This is so obvious, notwithstand-

ing the objections of some who are opposed to any system that requires an index, that the fact has but to be stated to meet with general assent. It is further witnessed by the additional fact that no system has been printed within the past ten years that has not been accompanied by such an index. If a carefully prepared system, fully elaborated and coördinated in all its parts, were to be published without such an index, the user of it would soon find himself supplying the deficiency by making an index of his own, thus showing not only that an index is a convenience but a necessity.

Class Notation

I come now to speak of two great obstacles to be dealt with in the formation and application of the ideal system of classification; the system that is destined, because of its intrinsic merits, to take the precedence of all others and attain a general use. The first to be considered is class notation. The combined ingenuity, and the best talent of the library profession has, as yet, failed to devise a class notation that is entirely satisfactory. We have systems that use letters alone, as Mr. Edmand's; letters and figures, as Mr. Cutter's; letters, figures, and symbols, as Mr. Smith's; and figures alone, as in Messrs. Dewey's, Perkins and Schwartz's systems. Each of these notations has its peculiar advantages, and it is greatly to be regretted that some new notation cannot be devised that will combine all their best points, but this is clearly impossible.

What is to be sought for, in our ideal notation is:—

1. Naturalness and simplicity in its characters and their combinations;

2. Ease in reading, writing, and remembering them; and

3. Brevity, with a great capacity for subdivisions.

The most natural and available materials from which to construct a notation are letters and figures. There is little reason to suppose that any system, based upon the use of other characters, could be successfully or generally employed. Between the use of figures and letters, used alone, there are reasons to be deduced in favor of both, though personally I am inclined to prefer figures. Letters are open to two objections: 1. They are not as easily written or read as figures, besides they require a greater number of strokes of the pen in their construction and are therefore more liable to illegibility. 2. They are not capable of as great a variety of combinations, without pro-

ducing unpleasant effects. Figures or letters used alone seem preferable to their combined use, which can only be justified upon the ground of brevity and a greater capacity for subdivisions. The combinations are too complex to be fully understood by the usual frequenters of libraries.

Figures alone, seem to answer most fully and satisfactorily the requirements we have named as essential to an ideal system of notation, being most easily written, read, and remembered, and being in their combinations the simplest forms known to the human mind. Figures in all their permutations are perfectly natural and simple, and are easily read or remembered, which cannot in all cases be said of letters. There are two methods of dealing with figures as a class notation that call for a moment's notice. We may first lay out our scheme of classification, and elaborate it to any desired extent, and then begin and number our classes, sub-classes, and sections in regular numerical order, leaving occasional gaps for new subjects that may arise in the future. While this may seem a more economical use of material than the other method which I shall presently mention, I am inclined to think that in the end nothing is gained, but that much confusion is liable to arise, especially if inadequate gaps are left for future contingencies. This is the very same objection which we saw rendered the fixed location objectionable, and led to its abandonment. The second method of using figures is that of using decimals for purposes of subdivision. This method, if we may judge by the favor with which it has been received and adopted, seems to be the best application of figures, when used alone. The great objection to the use of decimals lies in the fact that minute subdivision necessitates long class numbers; but I think I express the mind of many in saying that a class number of not more than four, and in exceptional cases of five figures, is preferable to one of mixed figures and letters, even if the latter were shorter by one or two characters. It does not follow because a system of classification has been carefully elaborated for the use of specialists in all its classes, that it must be adopted, with all its subdivisions and minute headings, in all libraries. The extent to which it is to be adopted is purely a matter of judgment, to be determined by the circumstances of each particular case. For a library just starting, the wisest course seems to be to select some system that has been carefully coördinated and worked out, and decide how much of it

shall be adopted, it constantly being borne in mind that the future growth and success of the library depend much upon its being laid out upon a broad and liberal basis, and that careful and even elaborate work will, in the end, prove most economical.

Alphabetical Book Numbers

The second great obstacle to be dealt with in the application of our ideal system is in the too persistent use of alphabetical systems of book numbers. Those best known and generally used are primarily designed to keep large classes of books, as fiction and biography, and even whole libraries, in strict alphabetical order. When, however, the library is broken up into minute classes, under a system of close classification, the necessity previously existing for a strict alphabetical order, either by authors or works, ceases; and instead of being a great convenience it becomes a disadvantage. This may be seen in those libraries that have attempted to use close classification, Mr. Dewey's for example, in connection with Mr. Cutter's system of book numbers. There are certain large form divisions, like fiction, drama, and poetry, as well as biography, which no system of close classification can satisfactorily break up. In these and other similar classes, an alphabetical order is highly desirable, and can in most cases be satisfactorily secured by abbreviating the usual class number; but where close classing is used and small divisions of books secured, some other system of book numbers should usually be employed. The alphabetical arrangement has perhaps more and greater advantages than any other, but instead of employing an elaborately worked-out system the capacity of which is practically unlimited, I would use an approximate alphabetical arrangement. This can readily be secured by simply using the authors' initials, followed, whenever necessary, by numerals in the regular order of accession; e. g., B. B1, B2, etc. In many small classes of which close classification will give us a large number, this will often give us a strict alphabetical arrangement and in many others it will be so nearly so as to occasion little if an inconvenience.

Object of This Paper

This paper has been prepared with especial reference to the wants of public libraries that circulate their books, instead of

those reference libraries where the demand for economy in call numbers is not so imperative. The adoption of close classification within the limitations I have laid down, will enable them to do their work once for all, as far as practicable, and to put off, as far as possible, the evil day of a general readjustment, and deprive it of most of its terrors.

Recapitulation

To briefly recapitulate; I have attempted to show: —

1. That relative location is a natural outgrowth in library work;

2. That relative location has not only made close classification possible, but practicable;

3. That close classification has inherent advantages which we cannot afford to ignore; and

4. That, in its formation and application, two difficulties have to be met and overcome: —

a. The class notation must be formed of such materials and in such a manner as to combine the following essential features: —

a. Naturalness and simplicity in its characters and their combinations;

b. Ease in reading, writing, and remembering them; and

c. Brevity, with a great capacity for sub-divisions; and

b. In its application, approximate rather than strict alphabetical order should be used, except in certain rare cases.

CLOSE CLASSIFICATION VERSUS BIBLIOGRAPHY

In this paper, William I. Fletcher of the Amherst College Library, gives his objections to close classification, mentioning first the impossibility of shelving analytics with the specific subject treated. Mr. Cutter says that this difficulty applies only to a small minority of books, and that the gain from thoroughly classing the large majority which lend themselves to classification far over balances the harm that may come from the few refractory ones. Mr. Fletcher advocates the substitution of bibliographies for close classification, making a plea for wider cooperation in their production as the next step in the development of libraries. A short biography of Mr. Fletcher is given in Volume II of this series.

The little Latin word in the title I have given to this paper is, perhaps, its most significant word. Our president has assured the mayor and people of Milwaukee that we are a peaceful company, and I am very loath to introduce here anything wearing a belligerent aspect. But the nature of my paper is wholly defensive. If I assume the attitude of controversy it is not from a love of it, but because there seems to be need that some one should raise the standard and blow the trumpet against an arch-invader, and even a penny whistle is better than no trumpet.

Please observe that I labor here under the disadvantage of following an able champion of close classification, and of preparing my paper in ignorance of the views and arguments he may advance. I must, therefore, state the position of the close classifier as best I may from my knowledge of what it has generally been. And the best statement I can make of it is this: a library should be so arranged that all its resources on a given subject are brought together in one place, readers to be referred

to that place as the chief means of directing them in their pursuit of the subject.

In stating my objections to close classification I would mention first its necessary imperfection.

Classification, as used in the sciences, may be exact, and, to all intents and purposes, is so. But as applied to a library, it cannot be, for the reason that many of the best contributions to the discussion of a great many subjects are not detachable from the books or sets which contain them, and which are not classible with them. This has been so often urged, and with so much force, that I need not dwell upon it. I know of but one means of meeting this difficulty which has been proposed, and that is the use of dummies. In speaking of some library methods we can judge them by experince; but I have yet to learn of a library where the dummy system has been used to such an extent as to furnish any answer to the question, "How does it work?" My own impression is that it is likely to prove a larger and more difficult task to carry the dummy business to the point of elaborateness and efficiency proposed by the advocates of close classification than they suppose.

Take, for example, the department of biography. Open the Brooklyn catalog under that heading. In repeated instances there are five or six titles in small print, under the name of some person, for one in large print. That is to say, five or six titles that would be represented by dummies on the shelf, to one volume falling into the same final subdivision with them. And, if the idea of looking to the shelves rather than to catalogs for guidance is to be followed to its logical conclusion, the paragraphs which we find in the Brooklyn catalog, containing several lines of directions to periodical articles, etc., must be represented either by one dummy bearing this information on its side, or by a further set of dummies, one for each reference. Nor is this a mere *reductio ad absurdum* for the sake of argument. It appears to be indubitable that to meet the wishes of those who would have the shelves themselves exhibit the full resources of the library under the various divisions and subdivisions of literature, even the minutest of them, this dummy system must be carried to the point I have indicated. Even the references in Poole's Index must be carried out on dummies. If it be objected that no one has proposed anything so extreme as this, I would reply that it is simply because no one has got

far enough along with this idea of a library being its own subject-catalog to appreciate whither it tends and what it demands.

Once entered upon I believe this scheme of making the library exhibit in one spot on the shelves its resources on a given subject will inexorably demand that something be placed upon the shelf at that spot which shall refer to everything contained in the library on the subject not classible with it. Here is where we join issue with the system as to its practicability. In practice its demands cannot be met, and just the moment its advocates draw back from one of them they have struck their flag. If, for example, they say they will not parcel out Poole's Index in the dummy form all over the library, they say they will not have each section represent *all* the resources of the library on its subject; and the system is nothing if not all-inclusive.

Nor are the references in Poole's Index the only illustration that can be given of the impracticability of this scheme. Is any one going to put into his scientific department a dummy for each paper in the Philosophical Transactions and similar collections? The absurdity of the phrase "all the resources of the library on a given subject," in this connection, is such that it only needs to be hinted at. No librarian will deny that catalogs and indexes must be consulted before one can be sure that he has found either the whole, or even the larger part, or the better part, of the references he will need on a certain subject. And yet the fallacy of close classification is carried to the extent in some quarters of giving readers to understand that their main reliance may be placed on the classification. By this means readers are misled (and this is my second objection), and allowed to content themselves with a partial grasp of the literature of a subject. I have found myself constantly under the necessity of cautioning readers against the misleading tendency of so much of classification as we have at Amherst; and I believe the true attitude of the librarian who would help readers to do the best with their subjects must be this. He must advise and encourage them in every way to find what is the literature of the subject in hand. The work of the best librarians we have had in the past has been in this direction, and the catalogs of the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenæum, the Brooklyn Library, and many others, such as that of

Quincy, Mass., have at once recognized the demand, and been recognized as meeting it admirably.

The time now seems ripe for the next step in the progressive development of library science, namely, practical coöperation in the production of such bibliographical guides as are to some extent furnished by the catalogs I have mentioned. I have undertaken to persent this paper at this time largely because at this point its subject runs in a line with the effort we are making through the coöperation committee to organize coöperative cataloging. But I regret the misapprehension likely to arise from the use in this connection of the word cataloging. Cataloging is properly used only of that work by which we describe and locate for finding purposes the contents of a library, or the books of a certain period, or those on a special subject. The catalogs of which I have spoken as showing progress in the direction of furnishing readers with the means of tracing the literature of subjects are marked by the addition of what is properly bibliography. They answer the question to the best of their ability, "What can I find on my subject?" but being made with reference to a certain library they are confessedly partial as bibliographers, and only answer the question, "What can I find *here* on my subject?"

I do not anticipate a time when this question must not be answered in a general way with the *here* in it, by each library for itself. But we are all agreed that there is a large field of bibliographical work not to be well or economically done by each library for itself, but rather by a combination of libraries or by individual enterprises outside, and we may well hope and expect that the small number of such guides we now have (and find so useful) may rapidly and greatly increase. All the progress of the past has been in the direction of more and more of bibliographical guidance for the users of our libraries, and, if I do not greatly mistake, bibliography is the watchword of the future for us.

Here, then, is where we join issue with close classification, as to its fatal defect as a system of guidance to the resources of a library on given subjects. Close classification says: "Here you will find *all* our resources on this subject." It will doubtless be objected that I lay undue stress on this as the motto of close classification; but I should insist that it is practically the claim put forth by close classifiers, and the fulfilment of

which is legitimately to be demanded by them. Please observe that I allude only to those who use close classification as a common guide to serve in the finding of the books, and who prefer it to catalogs for that purpose. I have no issue with those who classify as closely as possible, so long as classification is relegated to its subordinate place as a minor factor in library administration. As opposed to this motto of close classification, sensible classification says: "You will find in this place our most available resources on your subject;" but it adds a warning that bibliographies and catalogs and indexes must be also used. And it modestly refuses to be made of much account itself, insisting that it is not intended or adapted for this work of guidance beyond a most general and limited scope.

I shall be asked why I make so much of a supposed antagonism between the two methods of guiding readers to what they need. Instead of being rival claimants to favor and use, why may not classification and bibliography go hand in hand, each supplementing the other? But this is a simple impossibility. The seeker after knowledge cannot go first both to your shelves and to your catalogs and bibliographical helps. The whole reason for existence of these elaborate schemes of classification is that they may furnish the reader with a short-cut to the knowledge he seeks, avoiding the time-honored and roundabout modes of study. In this connection it may be regarded as representative of the whole mischievous system of the new education, so called, which would lead men through the world of mind by short-cuts on account of the modern lack of time for culture. If the library system of our day has one mission more strongly set before it than another it is that of furnishing the means of *culture* to a people the whole current of whose life is in danger of being drawn out into the straight canal of a fatal specialization. May God forbid — I say it with reverence — that the library system itself should add another to the narrowing and specializing tendencies of these times; that it should encourage the disposition to save time at the expense of culture, by being itself an embodiment of the labor-saving, time-saving, and superficial spirit of the age, — a spirit which wants nothing for a classical library but a shelf of "ponies."

To sum up what I have said as to the unwisdom of the proposed substitution of classification for bibliography in a wide sense, as the best means of directing readers, I would charac-

terize it as an attempt to substitute machinery for brains. Intelligent librarians and assistants, and the best obtainable intelligence crystallized in bibliographical books, are the furnishing our libraries need. To "ring out the old and ring in the new" here means to turn out the sorrowing genius of culture from what should be the citadel of her hopes, and fill her place with a set of cog-wheels.

A few words on one more aspect of the scheme of elaborate classification, and I am done. I have attempted to show that in improving the bibliographical resources of our libraries, and laying the chief stress on them as guides to readers, we are on the solid ground of experience and an orderly development of our library system. But this Will-o'-the-wisp of close classification dances over the quagmires of inexperience, uncertainty, and extravagance. For, of all the movements that have ever been made in the field of library work, this latest one is the most exorbitant in its demands for the sinews of war. I am not prepared with figures as to the cost of the work undertaken, and to some extent done, where the genius of classification most reigns, nor should I wish to deal in particulars on this ground where we cannot fail to find a considerable sensitiveness. But those who care to do so can easily get the figures, or a basis for an estimate in those quarters, and I well content myself with predicting that they will find the result surprising. The expense put upon this work in two or three of our leading libraries is such that it can be justified only on the theory that it is done once for all, and when completed will call for but little further expenditure. But this will prove to be a delusion. The more elaborate and thoroughgoing is your system the more constant and considerable will be the changes dictated by one's own progress in knowledge and inevitable shifting of position on certain points, and much more by the constant changes in the crystalizations of the world's thought. Supposing a library had been nicely adjusted in all its parts by one of these schemes of close classification just before the appearance of "Darwin's Origin of Species," who can tell what modifications would have been made as the result of the earthquake caused by that book, not only in science, but in every branch of knowledge? *Noblesse oblige*; and just in proportion as a scheme is now made to fit with exactness the present state of knowledge and

modes of thought will it be necessary to make changes and modifications as knowledge and thought change their shapes in the wonderfully rapid development of the nineteenth century. As well attempt to draw the figure at the bottom of your kaleidoscope while it is being slowly revolved as to catch and hold the ever-varying scheme of human knowledge.

I have thus attempted, in a humble way, to protest against this innovation of close classifying. I have prepared this paper with a deep feeling of the importance of the subject, and an earnest desire to throw some clear light upon it. From those who may differ with me I bespeak the respect and consideration due to earnest conviction; and above all, I sincerely hope that here and elsewhere we may have the grace to conduct this inevitable and irrepressible conflict without unseemly personalities, and to the ultimate triumph of the true, the good, and the beautiful.

CLASSIFICATION FROM THE READER'S POINT OF VIEW

As a further contribution to the subject, Mr. William E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, gives a brief for the general reader, who is not acquainted with the systems of classification, nor the principles thereof. The writer admits that it is impossible for a person to find all the material that he may want on a certain subject shelved together. He gives examples, and suggests the supplementing of classification by the use of bibliographies and other tools. A sketch of Mr. Foster may be found in Volume I of this series.

Librarians have sometimes been reproached with forgetting that the system of classification is or should be made for the reader—not the reader for the system. In other words, the system of classification is a means to an end,—not the end itself. We do not believe that this important principle has been very widely lost sight of by librarians. Nevertheless, it may be well for us to turn our attention to it for a short time to-day, particularly in some of its practical bearings.

One antidote, which ought always to be effectual in counteracting any tendency to regard classification as apart from any relation to the use to be made of it by readers, is the fact that the librarian himself is a reader, and that he not unfrequently has occasion to appear in the character of a reader, rather than an official, at libraries other than his own. Nor does he always appear in the same character. Indeed, he is something of a Proteus. Sometimes he merely runs in to turn to a book of reference, and slip out again. Sometimes he goes to ascertain whether some specific book—possibly a book coming under the description of light reading—is in. Sometimes he comes with a list of three or four or five books which are all he wishes to see. At other times, indeed, he is the true student, and requires to see if possible, all that the library con-

tains on the subject in question. There is really no reason, then, why, in deciding on this or that detail in the plan of classification at his own library, he should not be able to put himself in the reader's place, and see the subject with his eyes.

Now, it is probably beyond question that skill and intelligence in working out a classification system were never known to be inherent reasons for its non-adaptedness to the reader. The non-adaptedness—if it exist—exists simply from a failure to connect the system with what are the reader's specific needs at the particular time under consideration. If he is coming for a copy of "Lorna Doone," and going out immediately if that is not in, an elaborate system is of no special use to him. A dictionary catalogue will serve his purpose better. Again, if, having read one of Tolstoi's books, he has simply a desire to get others by the same author, the dictionary catalogue will be his best reliance.

Suppose, however, that his desire is not at all of this nature, but to obtain and use materials bearing on a given subject, it then becomes of the highest importance to us to discover in what way best to serve his purpose.

Let us clear a path by suggesting a few general principles.

One of these is that it is useless to expect that individual minds will ever move in precisely the same grooves in planning systems of classification, considered as logical creations of the mind. As many as are the classifiers, so many will be your different systems.

But the converse of this is equally important; namely, that in order to use as a tool any system of classification, which is not needlessly obscure, one does not need to master the system, but only turn to its key,—the subject index. The criticism, therefore, that you cannot expect the average reader at a public library to have exhaustively studied all classification theories has no weight.

Again, as our associate Mr. Fletcher has well pointed out, so long as books are made up—as they now are in innumerable instances made up—of material an many different subjects, instead of on the plan of one subject to any given book, there is no such thing as an absolute classification of the contents of the library on the shelves. It is not possible to point to shelf after shelf, all through the library, and say: "Here you will find all that the library contains on the subject you wish."

And yet, conversely, it does not follow from this that, by flying to the other extreme, and giving the books little or no classification on the shelf, you most perfectly serve the inquirer's purpose. If you are on a train running from New York to Chicago, and you wish to communicate for a moment with your friend, and find that he is not in the same car with you, it is something to be thankful for, is it not, if he is in another car of the same train,—and that a vestibule-train,—rather than on another train on a different railroad.

Once more, a subject catalogue, while furnishing a certain assistance, cannot do all that a bibliography can, both because the latter confines itself to one subject, and does that exhaustively, and because the library of which it is a catalogue may lack some of the more fundamentally important works on the subject.

Yet, conversely, as a guide to the shelves of the particular library which the reader is using, the service rendered by the subject catalogue has its own unquestionable value. Mr. Cutter's recent instance of etherization, in the *Library journal,* is a strikingly apposite case in point. Moreover, in libraries other than its own, the subject catalogue fulfills a constant and indispensable service, by supplementing and complementing the less minute treatment adopted in the local catalogue, by permitting at one glance a view of many different sub-kingdoms of the general domain of knowledge, impossible in a separate bibliography, and in general by supplying an additional and reserve source of information to appeal to; just as in looking up the name of some public character in a biographical dictionary, the cataloguer is never known to complain of having too many different biographical dictionaries accessible, but not infrequently too few.

These are the three main points under which this subject presents itself to the reader — the scheme of classification not his own but the cataloguer's, and yet the key to it in his own hands; the arrangement of the books on the shelves a close classification or the reverse; and the public catalogue of the library a subject catalogue or otherwise. And here, before we advance farther in our consideration of the subject, we find that we must face the subject of access to the shelves by the readers. All librarians are looking with undisguised interest at the experiment which Mr. Poole is about undertaking; they

have read with scarcely less interest the account which Mr. Brett has recently given of his practical application of the principle at Cleveland. There is perhaps little doubt that in the future there will be decidedly more, rather than less, freedom of access to the shelves by readers, even in the larger libraries. Moreover, if we assume, in our consideration of the question of classification, access to the shelves by the reader, rather than the reverse, we cover both cases, in reality; for even in those instances where the reader does not personally visit the shelves, he does so vicariously, so to speak, in the person of the librarian or assistant who looks up the subject for him. Once more, if we are to assume in our consideration of this question the conditions represented by the reader requiring most, rather than least, assistance, we adopt the principle which should govern. As in the case of a water supply contained in a reservoir, if the reservoir contains too little water for the demand, the remedy is not an easy one. If, however, it contains too much, nothing is easier than to shut it off at a point exactly proportioned to the demand.

I propose now to take up in succession a few applications actually made, during recent weeks, by readers at the library with whose workings I am the most familiar, which may fairly be considered typical of the different varieties represented. They will, I think, throw important light on the point which I wish to make prominent.

No. 1. A reader wishes to use whatever relates to electric motors. He can find the entry of this subject in the subject index, and is, therefore, readily enough guided to the page of the classed catalogue, where works on this subject are entered. He finds the classification a sufficiently close one to give him these entries by themselves, instead of being mingled in with others on the electric light, electro-metallurgy, etc., and in this way his time is saved, and his researches are expedited. Moreover, it so happens that he is one of those readers who are admitted to access to the shelves. He finds the arrangement on the shelves of inestimable service to him, so far as it goes. That is to say, he finds it a help that these works on electric motors stand by themselves on the shelves, and yet with the works on other applications of electricity in close proximity. But, as Mr. Fletcher reminds us, in consequence of the failure of grouping in volumes, to correspond to abstract classification,

he finds it necessary to go a little farther away for the equally essential material on his subject in files of electrical periodicals, and still farther away for that in the more general periodicals—in works of reference, volumes of scientific and other essays, pamphlets, etc. Here, of course, is where he appreciates the service of a subject catalogue, which brings all this material together under his eye on a single page. He would appreciate also a separate bibliography devoted to electric motors, but he may not have this wish gratified. It may happen, however, that the librarian has, within a day or two, posted a special list of references on this very subject, and this he, of course, makes use of. His access to the shelves, serviceable as it is, he finds it an advantage to supplement (and this, I think, we must regard as the ideal form in which to apply this important principle), by the use of a special study-room, directly adjacent to the book shelves, but where he can have books, etc., as above indicated, brought to him from *all* parts of the bookcases, by the library attendants. That is to say, he must have his own use of the shelves supplemented by that of the library attendants, especially in such a case as this of electric motors, where the reader or student, who is making any serious study of the subject, cares almost as much for what is to be found under electricity as a natural force (that is, natural science), and for works on railway transportation in general (that is, social science), in their bearings on his own subject, as he does for those on his subject (which is a matter of applied or practical science). Once more, in the case of a subject which is gathering volume, and growing almost appreciably from day to day,—as in any one of these applications of electricity,—he will certainly do well to consult with the librarian, who, no doubt, can tell him of some patent specification, or annual report, or newspaper hearing, or testimony of an expert, which has come to hand even since the list of references was posted. That is to say, he must have all his own care and observation and familiarity supplemented and complemented by the librarian's.

No. 2. A reader desires to construct some representation of the so-called ceremony of the "Marriage of the Adriatic," at Venice, by the study of Venetian costumes, vessels, scenery, etc. He is observed to have before him a certain number of volumes.

all on Venice. So far as this, the subject index has helped him, but it leaves him still unsatisfied. The librarian gladly undertakes to supplement the incomplete work of classification system, arrangement on shelves, subject catalogues, bibliographies, etc.,—for this is a case where the two last mentioned would not extend their aid,—and, by searching through indexes to contents of picture galleries, indexes to bound volumes of the Art Journal, etc., works descriptive of paintings of Turner and other artists, works on the traditions of mediæval Europe, etc., finally places in the hands of the inquirer all that he requires. Here, again, all that the general systems of assistance can possibly do needs to be supplemented by specific assistance directly adapted to the individual reader.

No. 3. The applicant is an officer of a local School of Design and wishes to have before him all that the library can yield, on necklaces, particularly those of the bead description, for the purpose of comparative studies of design. He may or may not find the subject index serviceable here. He will certainly find access to the shelves of inestimable service. He will especially appreciate a closeness of classification which not only places works on design apart from those on the more technical discussions of art, but those on design in objects of ornament apart from those on architectural design, and which, moreover, separates those on costume proper from all the other varieties. At the same time, the benefit of having these various gradations of the subject more or less directly at hand, that he may refer back to them, in his comparative studies, is fully appreciated. No doubt, therefore, his consultation and study of Racinet, Kretschmer and Rohrbach, Gerlach, and others, will be full of benefit to him; but you may be assured that he will least of all regret having asked the librarian for additional suggestions, which shall bring to supplement those just named, such works from other portions of the library as Schliemann's "Tiryns," Dennis's "Etruria," Jacquemart, Perrot and Chipiez, files of *Grewerbehalle, L'Art pour Tous, Artistic Japan,* etc. Once more, what the inquirer needs is *all* the assistance that he can derive from all sources. The reply, over and over again, to readers at my own library, who hesitatingly inquire how many books they are at liberty to ask to have brought them, to look over in the library, is, as many as they wish—100 or 200, even, if necessary.

What, then, is our conclusion from this brief study of specific instances? What does the putting ourselves at the readers' point of view lead us to infer as to methods of classification, arrangement, and cataloguing? In brief, this: Let the reader whose need is limited to finding a specific thing be able to find it by that ready reference, the "dictionary arrangement." Let the reader whose need is that of the literature of a subject find the library classified by a comprehensive system, sufficiently closely classified to respond to his varying needs, supplied with a subject index, as a ready key to the whole, arranged on the shelves with as close an approach to correspondence to abstract classification as is found practicable, and the shelves accessible to the intelligent student wherever practicable. But even if he has all these, the reader must still have them, plus the privilege of a special study-room where the bringing of books from other portions of the library may correct the inadequacy of shelf arrangement already referred to; plus the helps furnished by bibliographies in supplying a birds-eye view of the subject, not possible in this particular library; plus the helps supplied by subject catalogues, for subjects on which no bibliographies have been printed; plus all reference lists and other miscellaneous varieties of help—and even this is not sufficient, unless we add, also, plus the librarian himself, that he may correct and supplement all deficiencies and inadequacies of the various kinds specifically mentioned above, by his own trained, interested, and effectual service of the reader.

SYSTEMS OF SHELF-NOTATION

The allied subjects of classification and book numbers, are here considered by Mr. Langton of Toronto, with special reference to the Decimal and Expansive systems. He advocates the substitution of an easily-understood abbreviation for certain bibliographic symbols; for instance, *Ital. lit.* to replace "Y 36" of the Expansive notation. At Mr. Langton's request, comments on these suggestions were made by Mr. Cutter, who pointed out what he regarded as the disadvantages of the recommendations. These two articles appeared together in the columns of *The Library Journal* in 1896.

Hugh Hornby Langton was born in Quebec in 1862, and received his B.A. degree from the University of Toronto in 1883, becoming a barrister in 1887. He was registrar of Toronto University from 1887 to 1892, and since the latter date has held the librarianship of the University.

Many useful and acceptable reforms have been introduced of recent years in all branches of library administration; cataloging now takes rank among the exact sciences, the card-catalog in one form or another is almost universally accepted, and in other minor matters the conservatism of librarians has been effectually broken through. But the unanimity with which reforms in other departments have been accepted fails in one important instance, and the problem of shelf-notation and shelf-classification still awaits a solution that shall give general satisfaction. Undoubtedly a step of great importance in the right direction was taken when methods of designating not the place but the class to which a book belongs were introduced. The labor of altering shelf-marks whenever the collection of books outgrew its habitation was by this means saved, and decimal notation further

provided in a truly philosophic manner for indefinite expansion. We must all feel grateful to Mr. Dewey and to those who ably seconded him in establishing the great principle of denoting classification instead of locality by the shelf-marks. The older method, however, possessed one merit which its successors unfortunately lack, the merit of simplicity. When bookcases were merely numbered or known by the letters of the alphabet in order of position, and the books marked according to case and shelf, the discovery of a book marked D5, for example, presented no difficulty. It was obvious that the division known as D, whether alcove or bookcase, would be third from the similar division known as A, and 5 evidently represented the fifth shelf. Therefore when the locality of A once learned it was an easy matter to find D5. But what course of *a priori* reasoning would enable us to find 941.07 or Y36'D'F?

But it is not only the complexity of the later systems of shelf-notation that operates to their disadvantage. Therein they but illustrate the law of nature that increased complexity is attendant on higher organization. The fundamental defect in all systems of shelf-notation at present in vogue is their hieroglyphic character. In other words the shelf-mark, whether composed of letters or figures or a combination of both, is a mere symbol, meaningless except as a private mark, and even to the experts often unintelligible without reference to the key or dictionary of their peculiar code. Thus in Mr. Dewey's monumental system the number 941.07 by no means signifies 941 and seven hundredths, but stands for "History of Scotland during the period when the sovereigns of Great Britain were also Electors of Hanover." Nor when this information has been gained does it afford any clue to the interpretation of 941.17, which happens to represent the history of the Hebrides from the earliest times to the present day. Similarly the mark Y36' D'23D'F in Mr. Cutter's system signifies that a French translation of Dante's "Divina Commedia" is contained within.* Either system is frankly hieroglyphic and requires a key or dictionary for its use even by the library officials; and when that key assumes the bulk of Dewey's "Decimal classification" it is evident

[* Note by Mr. Cutter: This mark is in the form that would be given to an ordinary author. The mark actually used in the expansive classification for a French version of the "Divina Commedia" is Y36'D'F. In every literature a few leading and prolific authors have their marks abbreviated in this way.]

that considerable intelligence and much study are needed for comprehension of the system. In addition to the loss of time involved where the key has to be consulted, the strain upon the attention of the assistant who fetches the book or returns it to the shelves must be taken into consideration. Accuracy as absolute as human faculties are capable of is of the first importance when books are replaced on the shelves, and this is best attained by calling into play the intelligence or reflective power as well as visual memory. The attendant who goes for or replaces 941.07 or Y36'D'F has no knowledge of the meaning of these marks. His brain is busy with recording these symbols in their order, and in repeating them and comparing them with other slightly different symbols at the shelves. The task is almost mechanical and demands the tireless regularity of a machine. But the mind of man is not a machine and refuses to act as one. Hence arise the mistakes and misplacements of volumes which count for so much in the working of a library.

It is with a view to finding a remedy for what appears to be an inherent defect in the decimal and other hieroglyphic systems that the following suggestions are made. If plain English could be substituted for symbols, and the advantages of class-notation and indefinite expansiveness preserved, the result would be on the whole in the direction of greater ease and expeditiousness in the transmission of books to readers, which is the main object of a library's existence.

It remains to be seen whether any system of intelligible marking can be devised that shall not be too cumbrous for use. Obviously the words forming the titles of classes cannot be written in full on the label or space reserved for shelf-mark. Such a designation as Y36'D'F would, by translation of each symbol, become *"Literature, Italian, Dante, Divina Commedia, French."* But it may be possible to abbreviate and eliminate so as to arrive at a mark that shall be at once sufficient and concise and intelligible. The abbreviation *Ital.* or even *It.* for Italian is unmistakable as the designation of a department in a library, and in the same connection *Lit.* may very well stand for *Literature.* Thus the two first symbols of Y36'D'F can be replaced by *Ital. Lit.* In Mr. Cutter's Boston Athenæum classification, out of which the "Expansive" grew, the mark was Vip, I standing for *Italian* and P for *Poetry,* because then Mr. Cutter divided Literature into *Drama, Essays, Poetry,* etc.

It is the opinion of the writer that the arrangement of works of pure literature on the shelves according to form or subject-matter errs on the side of over-classification. Subdivision and analysis of that nature may very well be left to the histories of literature or to the library catalog. The practice of circulating libraries has established the separate existence of a class "Fiction," on account of the exceptional demand for that species of literature on the part of readers, but for college and reference libraries no such reason exists, and subdivision of the works of individual authors involves arbitrary discrimination and many perplexities. It appears that Mr. Cutter has arrived at the same conclusion, as he makes no form division in Literature, except for English fiction; but if the Boston Athenæum classification were used the mark *Ital. Poet.* might be substituted for the symbols VIP, and would represent in a satisfactory and intelligible manner all the ideas symbolized by that portion of the hieroglyph.

Before proceeding further it is necessary to postulate the principle of alphabetical arrangement according to authors in every subdivision of the library. It is one that can be grasped without difficulty by any individual who has learned the alphabet, and it may be taken for granted that the absolutely unlettered do not receive or apply for positions in libraries. The practice of publishers and bookbinders in impressing the name of the author and the essential portion of the title upon the cover of every volume, or at least upon the title-page, may also be conveniently taken advantage of in economizing words and space in the shelf-mark. We are thus largely relieved of the necessity of supplying an intelligible equivalent for D'F in the hieroglyph already instanced. "Dante, Divina Commedia" is legibly stamped upon the volume itself, and by the application of the principle of alphabetical arrangement its place on the shelves devoted to works in Italian poetical literature can be readily found among the authors whose names begin with D.

For precaution the initial letter of the author's name may be written below the class-mark, thus: $\frac{\text{Ital. Lit.,}}{\text{D}}$ as an assistance to, not a substitute for the intelligence of the attendant. For most libraries no further designation is necessary. But libraries grow, and the time may come when the collection of editions of Dante's works and books about him demands fur-

ther classification, and can no longer be conveniently arranged in alphabetical order of editors and commentators. The example in question assumes a division according to the titles of Dante's different works, and accepting this classification we can denote it by an additional sub-heading in the class-mark,

"Ital. Lit.

which will now become Dante No further indication can

Div. Com."

be necessary except the initial letter of the name of editor or translator, and the whole mark will now, with the name of the translator on the cover or title-page, be as infallible a guide to the place of the book as Y36'D'F. It is true that the time spent in writing this mark upon the title-page or shelf-mark space in the book and again upon the main entry of the work in the card catalog, is more than if the mark were Y36'D'F; but the mental effort will be less exacting where a number of volumes have to be marked, and the chances of error therefore, minimized.

The above instance taken at random will serve as an example of the writer's meaning. Every librarian will have his own views as to details, and it is hoped that this indication of the principle suggested will elicit comment and criticism. The experience of the writer in the application of the system has convinced him that it is possible to devise abbreviated titles for all the divisions of literature, history, philosophy, science, and art, that a college or reference library has to provide, and has also proved the advantage of a mark that is intelligible at a glance to any one whose education qualifies him to use such a library.

Comment by C: A. CUTTER, *Librarian Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass.*

As the example which Mr. Langton chiefly dwells upon is taken from my Expansive classification, I have been asked to supply some of the comment which he requests.

There are certainly advantages in his notation but they are outweighed by its disadvantages. For city and town libraries it would be out of the question; for college libraries, to which alone Mr. Langton recommends it, it would have the disadvantage of filling much more space in a printed catalog or on a printed card and of taking more time to write on a call-slip, of

therefore generating an impatience that would lead to hasty writing and to quite as many mistakes as are imagined to be caused by errors in copying the "hieroglyphics" of the Decimal and the Expansive systems. Hieroglyphics evidently require and usually receive a certain degree of care in their copying. But every one would think that his writing of *Lit. Ital. Dante Divina Commedia, edition of* 1867, would be intelligible however hastily he might dash it off. The Langton plan also entirely misses the convenience of having a brief mark for each book, standing for it and no other, which can be used in all library records.

It is an entire mistake to suppose that "the attendant who goes for or replaces 941.07 or Y36'D'F has no knowledge of the meaning of these marks." "The mind of man," as Mr. Langton well remarks, "is not a machine," and no boy who is worth his salt fails to pick up considerable knowledge, fragmentary and incomplete it may be but continually broadening, of the meaning of these symbols.

But the least defensible part of Mr. Langton's plan is his omission of author and work marks, using only the initial of the author's name. It is strange that any one who has dealt with books should rely upon the publishers' lettering to show authors and titles correctly enough for careful arrangement. Sometimes there is no lettering, sometimes no author is given or a wrong author, sometimes no title or a wrong title. Even when correct either author or title or both may be printed in very small type and on any part of the back. The class and book marks, on the contrary, are printed in a large clear type at a uniform height.

On condemning the omission of book numbers I speak whereof I do know. For over a year I have been issuing books at the Forbes Library under peculiar circumstances. A third of the volumes are fully classified and lettered with the class and book marks, the other two-thirds are arranged in great classes, such as Fiction, Biography, History, Science, Art, alphabetically under each, and not lettered. I have just separately asked each of five attendants whether they prefer to get and put up books in the lettered or unlettered portion. Each answered decidedly that the work is much easier and quicker in the lettered part. My own experience confirms this. They acknowledge that putting the initial of the author's name on the back could help them, but assert that even so they would be obliged to open at

least half the books if they wish to arrange them accurately. And this means opening not merely the book which they are putting away but often many of the books already on the shelves, to determine where among them the new-comer belongs. None of this fussy work is necessary if the books are properly lettered with class and work marks.

When our carpenters return to the stone hammers and axes of the palaeolithic age, librarians who have once used a symbolic class and book notation will abandon it for the inconsistent and inadequate lettering of publishers and binders.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE DEWEY CLASSIFICATION AND THEIR ADJUSTMENT

A paper read before the Massachusetts Library Club in 1896 by William L. R. Gifford, then of the public library of Cambridge, Mass., who discusses first the general arrangement of classes and sub-classes, such as electricity, botany, nature-study, biography, and the chronological divisions by periods in literature. In ending the paper, Mr. Gifford says that the system is adaptable but advises the novice not to make innovations of his own, as later they may prove a source of confusion in connection with some of the sections which are closely allied.

William Logan Rodman Gifford was born in New Bedford, Mass., on November 5, 1862. He was graduated from Harvard in 1884, and has held the positions of assistant librarian at New Bedford, Mass., 1884 to 1895; librarian, Cambridge, Mass., public library, 1895 to 1904; librarian, St. Louis Mercantile library since 1904. In 1907 he was president of the Missouri Library Association.

Some years ago, when it was decided that the New Bedford Public Library must be reclassified, and when those upon whom the duty devolved were considering the comparative merits of several systems of classification, a gentleman long versed in library science said to me, "Whichever system you may choose, you'll soon wish you had dropped the whole thing and had studied law." Since that time it has so happened that I have had something to do with the classification of three libraries, and although I have not yet sought the prospects of relief held forth by the legal profession, it may be safely admitted that the temptation has at times presented itself.

The method of classification which was adopted at the time

of which I speak, and which I have since been using, was the decimal or Dewey system. In the 20 years and more during which this system has been in use, its merits and defects have become well known to the library world in general. And whatever criticisms we may see fit to pass upon it, the fact that the system has been adopted by so many libraries, which have thereby become to a greater or less degree pledged to its support and development, constitutes now one of its strongest recommendations to favor. For any system which serves to bring about greater uniformity in cataloging not only saves time and labor to the library employing it but becomes in a measure a source of convenience to the public through the widespread use of similar call numbers for similar classes of books.

When we turn to the difficulties to be encountered in using the Dewey classification, we are met at the outset by the incongruities in the divisions of the main classes. The sum total of human knowledge cannot be divided into ten parts without grouping together in some of those parts subjects of which the relationship is more imaginary than real. The same difficulty would arise, to a greater or less extent, were the base some other number than 10. Viewed from the practical side, however, this inevitable defect has always seemed to me of comparatively small importance. Take, for example, the case so often cited, of Amusements. This forms the heading of the last division in the Fine arts class, and one can hardly help suspecting that this place was chosen chiefly because no thoroughly satisfactory location could be found. One may well refuse to recognize amusements as being in any sense fine arts, though possibly the devotees of whist or of private theatricals might set up a defence of some sort. But in reality the division is an independent one and causes no inconvenience in the place to which Mr. Dewey has assigned it, although it may have no theoretical right to be there.

It is undoubtedly to be regretted that class 7 was not made Philology instead of class 4. This department would then have occupied the numerical position immediately preceding the closely allied department of Literature. As it is, the 400s can of course be placed on the shelves in immediate proximity to the 800s (Literature); but it would have been at least a source of satisfaction had the natural sequence been observed. For similar reasons, it would be desirable to have the Sociology class located next to that of History.

I should greatly overrun the amount of time at my disposal, and exhaust your patience as well, if I attempted to take up all the perplexing questions that arise in the course of cataloging a large library by the Dewey classification. To enumerate, however, a few of the objectionable features, let me first mention the subject of Finance. Section 332 is devoted to Money, banking, and coinage, while 336 is given over to Finance, so-called, and includes the subdivisions of state domain and properties, taxation, loans and public securities, and the financial operations of special countries. It is both difficult and unsatisfactory to separate books dealing with state finance from those which treat of the broad questions of money and banking. And even if the present division lines be upheld, then the two sections should be placed side by side, instead of being separated as they now are by the sections devoted respectively to land, co-operation, and socialism. As a matter of usage, I employ the proper subdivision of 336 (Finance) for books on taxation exclusively and make as little use as possible of the rest of the section.

Comment has often been made on the inadequate treatment of the division assigned to Law, number 340. I have found the lines of separation between general works on law (340) and those dealing with American and English private law (347) somewhat confused and misleading. The section most used by public libraries, since the average public library buys few law books, is the one comprising constitutional law and history (342). This section is satisfactory, except in the case of special historical libraries, where, for example, it is desired, especially for the assistance of students admitted to the shelves, to group together by periods everything relating to the history of a country. In that case the simplest solution is to disregard entirely the section of constitutional law and to locate everything in its proper chronological subdivision of class 9 (History). In a library of this kind, moreover, many biographies, Masson's "Milton" for instance, would probably be taken from the class to which they naturally belong and would be located in a similar way. It is proper to add that a revision of the subject of law is expected in the next edition of the Decimal classification.

Section 353 of division 350 (Administration) is given over to "United States and state government," and provision has been

made for very close classification. And so many of the departmental publications of the United States government are best located with the subjects of which they treat, this section is to many libraries of a trifle less importance than it would appear at first sight. And as for the cataloging of the sheep sets of United States documents, it has never been my privilege to see a library where in this particular the Dewey arrangement was closely followed. In the treatment of these documents libraries are apt to give a free rein to their individual tastes; and when one consideres the awful mystery which has hitherto surrounded the government scheme of publication, the deviations of the catalogers need excite no surprise. I will merely point out that in following the Dewey plan care should be taken that no confusion arise between the departmental publications, which belong in 353, and those of the legislative body, assigned to 328. And to preserve the unity of sets, a definite choice of location must once for all be made, in some instances, and then strictly followed.

In section 378, devoted to Colleges, a somewhat complicated scheme is presented for the classification in detail of all college publications. The chief objection to this plan is that it necessitates the use of letters in the book number in an entirely different way from any in which they are commonly employed in other parts of the system. A careful examination of the scheme has convinced me that it has many practical advantages for a large library which collects the minor publications of many colleges. But, except in such instances, I think a close classification as to locality will give all necessary freedom without adopting the suggested innovation in the book number.

The next subject to which I may call attention is Electricity. The divisions of section 537, to which electricity is assigned, are inadequate to meet the needs of what has now become a highly differentiated science. Sub-sections 5 and 6, devoted respectively to dynamical electricity and electro-dynamics, are particularly confusing to any one who starts out with the idea that he must make use of both. Sub-section 8 is to be used, if so desired, for applied electricity, although this branch of the science properly forms a sub-section of mechanical engineering. A trial of both locations has convinced me that it is more convenient, for the present, at least, to keep the books on applied electricity with those treating of the pure science, and hence

I prefer 537.8 to 621.3, and for the additional reason that the latter number fails equally with 537 to provide for electrical science as we have it to-day. It seems to me that in the next edition of the Decimal classification it will be found necessary to revise and extend both the topics of electricity and electrical engineering. And with this possibility in view, the present practice of many libraries in attempting very little subdivision is perhaps the best course.

The divisions treating of Chemistry and Botany are subdivided to meet the supposed needs of large scientific libraries, and here, as in all other cases where the classification is minute, libraries which only cover the ground in a general way are not expected to make use of it. I may only mention, in passing, that while I have never had occasion to employ the closest classification in these subjects, I have nevertheless found instances where the proper location of the book in hand could not be clearly determined. In botany, for example, the analysis is so close that it often seems necessary to make an arbitrary choice between two, or more, equally suitable locations; and the latest books contain groups of plants which are not distinctly defined by the sub-sections as we have them.

Before leaving the subject of botany let me mention another feature that is slightly perplexing. The place made for books on plants and flowers, viewed from the standpoint of gardening and not from that of botany, is in section 716 in the division of Landscape gardening. This plan of necessity separates at times books which are closely related, and the results are not always satisfactory, particularly in a library with open shelves. At the same time, I do not think the objections of sufficient importance to render necessary, in a general library at least, any modification of the scheme presented.

No one has made use of the Dewey system without feeling the lack of a definite location for books dealing with nature and outdoor life. The decimal classification, following in this case the form rather than the subject-matter, evidently intends such books to be classed with literature, chiefly in the sections devoted to American and English essays and miscellany. Since by a strict adherence to this plan the books become somewhat widely scattered, I have found it desirable, in common with some other librarians, to seek a location in which some of them, at least, might be grouped together, and which might bring them at the

same time into a little closer relationship with the subjects of which they actually treat. For this purpose I have used subdivision 4 of 590, which is supposed to be given up to essays on zoology. Most of the books referred to might be classed with equal propriety under botany. But since they have no place which is strictly their own, an arbitrary choice of this kind is not likely to meet every requirement; and to my mind the results are more satisfactory than when no subject classification at all is attempted. Moreover, the locations under literary essays and miscellany are still available, as before, for all books about nature in which the scientific side (if I may so term it) is of slight importance.

In regard to class 8 (Literature), I may say in general that I think the simplicity of one alphabetical arrangement in each section is to be preferred to the detailed analysis made possible by the special numbers assigned to individual writers. In particular it seems to me that subdivision by periods of such subjects as American drama (812) or of English letters (826) is entirely unnecessary. On the other hand, a chronological division of English poetry, for example, is of great value where the collection is a large one. The individual author numbers, even though not employed as a rule, may be useful where it is desired to group together many editions of a writer's works as well as a large amount of literature concerning him. The most notable example is of course Shakespeare, and many are the modifications of the Decimal classification that have been made on his account. I have found it convenient to reserve the Shakspeare number (822.33) for editions of his works, arranged by Cutter numbers according to the names of the editors, and to use 822.3 as a class number for books about Shakespeare, arranged in a similar way by the names of the authors. This enables one to keep the entire Shakespeare library together and at the same time to have the bibliography and criticism apart from the plays themselves. One entire sub-section of English drama is thereby devoted to one writer, but his relative importance is sufficiently great, in my opinion, to warrant a modification of this kind. And for libraries possessing large collections of English drama properly belonging in the same subdivision with Shakespeare, I would suggest the consolidation of sub-sections 1 and 2 of 822. The extra sub-section thus acquired may be used to meet the needs of the group of Elizabethan dramatists in whatever way may best suit the fancy of the cataloger.

As the circulation of fiction is such a predominating feature in public libraries, the Dewey arrangement has here been materially changed by almost every library employing it. Perhaps the most common substitute is to place all English prose fiction (including translations into English) into one alphabet, arranged by Cutter author numbers, and with the theoretical class number omitted for convenience in charging. I need not enlarge upon the practical usefulness of this plan, which is already familiar to you. The practice necessitates, also as a matter of convenience, the classification of all fiction according to the language, whereas in other departments of literature it is customary to follow the Dewey arrangement in locating with the original texts all translations, in whatever tongue.

When we turn to Biography, which is one of the divisions of the History class, we find that the Dewey classification suggests several methods of arrangement, of which the comparative merits depend entirely on the character of the library under consideration. The principal scheme, by which the subject is subdivided on the basis of the entire classification, seems to me somewhat impracticable. The analysis is carried so far that there would seem to be danger of hopelessly losing track of the biographies of persons who were remarkable for nothing in particular. And, all other objections aside, the scheme seems calculated to necessitate somewhat too close a dependence upon the catalog at the expense of free recourse to the shelves. For a public library I think the simplest way is to arrange all individual biography in one alphabet of the names of persons written about and to use the letter B as a class number. Where this plan is followed, I find it satisfactory to place collective biography also in one alphabet, arranged in this case by authors, with 920 as a class number. The main sections of 920 can of course be used for collective biography if it be desired to subdivide to that extent. But it seems to me at least open to question whether the gain from this analysis be worth the increase from one alphabet to nine.

In a reference library, where biography as a separate division has no such importance as in a public circulating library, it may be highly advantageous to treat the subject in an entirely different manner. Even in this case I should prefer to use another of the Dewey alternatives instead of the plan given in the tables. The method by which biography is distributed, as far as possible, among the different classes, so that

the lives of chemists are grouped with chemistry and those of musicians with music, has much to recommend it and is particularly worthy of consideration by scientific libraries.

Of modern history I may say in general that the adoption of period divisions will save time in the end. Even in small libraries the need of close classification is likely to be felt, and especially in the instances of England, France, and one's own state. An improvement might have been made in the relative order of the history divisions, had the geographical location been more carefully considered in a few places. It would be better to have Mexico and Central America immediately preceding South America and to have Alaska nearer British America. These changes would be of less importance, so far as history itself is concerned, than in the case of books of description and travel. But since the latter have the same relative arrangement as the histories of different countries, any criticism passed upon one must apply equally to both.

I have tried in the foregoing remarks to indicate, especially for any who may contemplate adopting the Dewey system, a few of the features which I have found not wholly satisfactory. To have attempted anything like a detailed review of the elaborate system of classification as it now stands would have taken me far beyond the necessarily brief limits of this paper. I have said little or nothing of the merits of the system, because I was asked to treat about what seemed to me some of its defects. But if I did not believe it to possess very decided value, I should long ago have sought something to use in its stead. The system is flexible, and, considering what it aims to do, is not complicated. In particular the mnemonic principle in the classification, to employ Mr. Dewey's phrase, is so ingeniously worked out that the novice soon finds he has translated what appeared to be a mass of somewhat bewildering figures into intelligible and easily remembered symbols. The adaptability of the system should not tempt one, however, to make innovations of his own with too great freedom, for what may seem in one place a simple change may prove a source of confusion in connection with some other sections which are closely allied. And until one has become thoroughly acquainted with the method of combining numbers, he will find it advisable to use the classification as he finds it instead of seeking a drastic remedy for every apparent difficulty.

CLASSIFICATION: A BRIEF CONSPECTUS OF PRESENT DAY LIBRARY PRACTICE

Mr. Martel of the Library of Congress begins by enumerating some of the advantages of shelf classification, and refers to the "Special Report of the Bureau of Education on Public Libraries in America in 1876," for a description of certain American systems of classification including those of Noyes (Brooklyn Library) Schwartz (Mechanical Library, N.Y.), and Harris (St. Louis). He then proceeds to discuss at some length the Dewey Decimal, the Expansive, and the system used by the Library of Congress. The paper was read before the New Zealand Conference in 1911.

Charles Martel was born in Zurich, Switzerland, March 5, 1860; educated at the Gymnasium and University there; spent the years 1880 to 1891 in travel, study and teaching in the United States, and entered library service at the Newberry Library in Chicago in 1892. He has been with the Library of Congress since 1897, becoming chief classifier in that year and chief of the Catalog Division in 1912. He was largely responsible for the Library of Congress classification system.

Among the problems which confront the librarian called upon to organize or reorganize a library, the twin problem of catalog and classification is one of the foremost. That its importance was early recognized and is not exclusively an article of faith of our later day professional librarians, has again been pleasingly illustrated by Alfred Franklin[1] in drawing from its resting place a classified catalog of the Sorbonne Library of 1338, prefaced by the modest compiler with an explanation beginning with the following legend from Ecclesiasticus, which may well serve as our motto: Sapientia abscondita et thesaurus

[1] Franklin, Alfred. Gude des savants . . . dans les bibliothèques de Paris. Paris, Welter, 1908.

invisus, quae utilitas in utrisque! In order that wisdom may be readily accessible to the searcher for knowledge and that the treasures of the library may not remain hidden, it should not only possess a good alphabetical catalog, but should be well arranged in methodical order. Indeed, until it is thus arranged a collection of books cannot well serve the purpose of a library and does not deserve to bear that title. As there are still some, however, who are heard from time to time maintaining that classification is futile and a waste of time and labor, since it fails to bring together *all* the resources of the library on a given subject and that the catalog alone is a satisfactory method of exhibiting them, it seems justifiable to reiterate some of the advantages to be gained from shelf classification. The student or business man in the pursuit of his investigations finds the literature which concerns his inquiry collected for him ready for examination. In so far at least as the material exists in the library in separate form, he is saved the time of bringing it together title for title by the roundabout method of referring first to bibliographies and then to catalogs, writing out separate slips for every item, frequently only to be disappointed in the scope or character of the books when they reach him. The librarian who has to answer these same and thousands of similar quests over and over again is saved that time in each instance. Classification is an economy. But it is more. Having before him the material belonging to allied classes and connected subjects in logical sequence his mind is constantly refreshed and kept in touch with the sources of information, his service becomes more and more efficient. And last, but not least, he is made aware of the deficiencies as well as of the resources and growth of his library in a most impressive way.

In attempting the solution of the question, "What classification is best?" for a given library the librarian may not always have before him in convenient form the data which he desires to assist him in arriving at the right conclusion. The literature of the subject has grown to vast proportions, and much of it is not readily accessible even in library centers. It is the object of this paper to give a brief account of the more generally available schemes, and more particularly of some of the printed classifications which may be regarded as best adapted for general application. Time was too short for a more comprehensive digest. A few references to some of the principal bibliographical sources of information on the classification question are ap-

pended, however, which may be followed most profitably in a detailed study of the subject.

Two courses are open to the librarian in determining what shall be the classification of his library: 1. He may decide to work out an individual system, specially adapted to the scope and character of the collections in his charge and their use. This procedure has been largely followed in the past, and is still preferred in many instances by the larger university and reference libraries, libraries of other learned institutions and societies, and particularly those devoted to special sciences and research or to professional interests. That the interests of the specialist should govern the classification of such libraries is self-evident. How, for instance, the literature of pure food should be grouped in my library, depends clearly upon whether I am a dairy man, a chemist in a municipal laboratory, a doctor, or a legislator.

For the librarian of the public library dedicated to the service of a constituency of all classes the case lies differently. The construction of a scheme meeting adequately the demands of a modern library is a most difficult undertaking requiring much time and means as a rule greatly beyond the resources of the average library. And even if practicable the advantages of such a system, however well carried out, would be largely offset by the greater cost as compared to that of applying an existing scheme. In addition there would be the disadvantage of being able to share in a much lesser degree the benefits to be derived from participation in coöperative cataloging and bibliographical enterprises.

2. The alternative course then of adopting or adapting an existing scheme of classification will commend itself to him for its superior practical advantages. How favorably he is situated in this respect compared with his colleagues of a generation ago he may easily demonstrate to himself by a glance at "Public libraries in the United States of America; their history, condition and management; special report, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education; Washington, Government Printing Office, 1876." This valuable encyclopedia of library science and practice of some 1200 pages, which is not yet superseded in the English speaking world by any comprehensive treatise, and retains all of its interest and much of its authority, devotes some forty pages in all to classification, including under the head of Catalogs and cataloging a description of the Dewey Decimal

classification; of that of the New York Apprentices Library by Jacob Schwartz; and of the "modification of the Baconian plan" prepared by William T. Harris, as applied in the catalog of the Public School Library of St. Louis. Dr. F. W. Poole outlines on two pages "a classification . . . sufficient for the class of circulating libraries we are considering" in his chapter on Organization and management of public libraries; and Prof. Otis H. Robinson, librarian of the University of Rochester, gives in another chapter one page of practical advice on the classification of college libraries. From that date (1876) which marks the organization of the American Library Association, and the establishment of the LIBRARY JOURNAL, followed the next year by the London Conference of Librarians and the organization of the Library Association of the United Kingdom (now the Library Association pure and simple) the contributions in form of classification schemes and discussions of their relative merits with special reference to the needs of public libraries begin to multiply rapidly. Notice here of all of them would lead too far; the record may be followed in the files of the LIBRARY JOURNAL, *Public Libraries* of Chicago, and the British and continental periodicals devoted to library science, among the latter were notably *Zentralblatt* (formerly *Centralblatt*) *für bibliothekswesen.* Full references may also be found in the list of bibliographical authorities given at the end of this paper.

As already mentioned, the Dewey Decimal classification was the first to make its appearance at the very beginning of the new era. For many years it remained the only general scheme in print, complete and fully indexed. In this availability more than in anything else lies its practical usefulness which is the cause of its popularity. It is easily applied and may be worked even by persons with little or no experience in classification. An excellent illustration of its application is furnished by the A. L. A. catalog.[1] One of the purposes of this volume, it is

[1] Full title: Library of Congress. A. L. A. catalog; 8000 volumes for a popular library, with notes. 1904. Prepared by the N. Y. State Library and the Library of Congress under the auspices of the American Library Association Publishing Board. Editor, Melvil Dewey; associate editors, May Seymour and Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1904. In two parts. Pt. 1: Class list, with synopsis of Decimal classification and subject index. Pt. 2: Dictionary catalog, with synopsis of Decimal and Expansive classifications.

The catalog may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Price, cloth, $1.

stated in the preface, was "to take the place of the printed catalog in small public libraries;" this purpose it has fulfilled most admirably. A printed card catalog of the collection was prepared also, and may be procured from the Card Section of the Library of Congress.

In its later, more expanded form it has been adopted also by a number of larger libraries, in practically all instances, however, with more or less extensive modifications amounting in some cases to the substitution of independent schemes for certain classes. The seventh or twentieth century edition, with revised headings and expansions providing for new subjects which have come into existence since the issue of the sixth edition is now in press.* Few libraries of continental Europe use the Decimal classification. But the Institut International Bibliographie at Brussels, founded in 1895, adopted it for all the contributions to its projected universal bibliography (Bibliographia universalis) and those of its many affiliated institutions and collaborators. The Brussels form of the schedules is greatly expanded in part and considerably modified, and translations in several foreign languages have been issued. In its numerous publications, prospectuses and bulletins devoted to standardization and unification of bibliographical methods the Institut recommends with special urgency the exclusive adoption of the Decimal classification by all libraries and for all bibliographical purposes whatsoever. (It may be remarked here that the combination decimal symbols employed by the Institut for the classification of titles, whether on cards or in bibliographies in book form, are for the most part impracticable in marking books and catalog cards in libraries.) At the International Congress of Bibliography and Documentation, held Aug. 25-27, 1910, at Brussels, under the auspices of the Institut it was recognized, however, that there may be reasons for the existence of other classifications, and a declaration was voted in favor of the establishment of concordance tables between the Decimal and such other classifications, and that the Decimal classification be adopted as an "auxiliary international bibliographical classification." The congress also expressed to Mr. Dewey its appreciation of the great services rendered by him through the invention of the Decimal classification.

Next to the Decimal classification the Expansive classification

* Has been issued since the writing of this paper.

of C. A. Cutter is undoubtedly the one of widest application in public libraries. Richardson[1] refers to it as "the most logical and modern in its nomenclature, of recent systems," and "a really scientific work of high value," and Brown[2] introduces it as "one of the most scientific and complete modern schemes of classification."

These expressions may be regarded as reflecting the estimate of the library profession generally. Since the publication of the first six classifications in 1891-93 the Expansive classification has been adopted by an increasing number of libraries with very satisfactory results. The completed system will embrace seven classifications, representing graduated expansions of the scheme from the simple divisions into classes sufficient for the needs of the smallest library to the full and minute schedules of the seventh, designed to meet the requirements of the largest libraries. The characteristic features of the system, its superior elasticity, brevity and mnemonic values of the notation are well described by Mr. Cutter in a paper read at the International Library Conference held at London, 1897. The second part of the A. L. A. catalog referred to above shows the Decimal classification and the Expansive classification side by side in their application to a library of about 8000 volumes. In a recent paper on "Old classifications—and the excuse for new ones."[3] devoted largely to a comparison of the Decimal classification and Expansive classification with a bias somewhat to the disadvantage of the latter, the writer in speaking of exceptions which had to be made to the underlying decimal principle of coördination and subordination expresses himself as follows: ". . . On the other hand, the Decimal classification never has the anomaly not unusual in the Expansive classification of having subheads—subheads in notation at least—which belong in reality under an entirely different subject. For instance, RFY 'Rural life,' and RFZ 'Management of agricultural estates,' are not subdivisions of RF at all, for RF is 'Metallurgy,' but subdivisions of RG 'Agriculture,' the subject following. Despite the comparatively smaller number of symbols in the Decimal classification it is never forced to 'back up' thus into the preceding heading to get room for its 'expansion.'

[1] Richardson, E. C. Classification. N. Y., 1901. p. 206-7.
[2] Brown, J. D. Manual of library classification. L., 1898. p. 73.
[3] Rider, A. F., in Library Journal. September, 1910. p. 387-96.

He seems to have overlooked the many instances where the Decimal classification instead of meeting the exigency by backing up into the preceding heading makes provision in such a way that a general head becomes a subdivision of one of its parts. Thus for instance Classical philology becomes a subdivision of 480 (Greek); Romance philology a subdivision of 479 (Minor Italic, Medieval Latin); Teutonic philology a subdivision of 439 (Minor Teutonic). These subjects are represented in many libraries by large bodies of literature, and if placed in their proper positions in the Decimal classification Classical philology would have to 'back up' into 469, becoming a part of Portuguese; Romance philology would be under 439.9 Gothic; Teutonic philology under 419, Hieroglyphics." In the paragraph next following the writer seems to entertain the delusion that because the Expansive classification affords a possibility of twenty-six subdivisions under any division of a higher rank they must all be filled in every case, and that it will be as difficult to "stretch" the classification to fill twenty-six places as to "squeeze" it into ten, which latter to be sure is one of the serious defects of the Decimal classification. The incomplete state of the seventh Expansive classification, which still awaits the issue of several schedules and of a full general index to the whole system, has probably proved a bar to its adoption in the case of many libraries. It is to be hoped that the delay in the completion of the schedules caused by the regretted death of the author will soon be overcome by those in charge of the material left by him.

The most recent of the general classifications, issued complete in book form, is the Subject classification, with tables, indexes, etc., for the subdivision of subjects; by James Duff Brown, London, Library Supply Company, 1906, "compiled in response to a demand from many libraries in the United Kingdom for a greatly extended version of the Adjustable classification, which was published in 1898." Its distinctive character may perhaps be best described in the author's own words (Introduction, p. 11): "General principles.—Like every other system of exact classification, this one is arranged, as regards its main divisions, in a logical order, or at any rate according to a progression for which reasons, weak or strong, can be advanced. Its basis is a recognition of the fact that every science and art springs from some definite source, and need not, therefore, be arbitrarily

grouped in alphabetical, chronological or purely artificial divisions, because tradition or custom has apparently sanctioned such a usage. The divisions seen in most classifications in vogue —Fine Arts, Useful Arts and Science, are examples of the arbitrary separation of closely related subjects, which in the past have become conventional, and it may seem heretical even at this late time to propose a more intimate union between exact and applied science. Nevertheless, this is what has been attempted here, and those who use the scheme will find many departures from established convention which may at first sight appear a little drastic. The alliance of Architecture and Building, Acoustics and Music, Physical Electricity and Electrical Engineering, and other groupings of a similar kind are departures from the convention that there exists a clear difference between theory and practice, pure and applied science, and so on, which renders their amalgamation undesirable. The old distinction between theoretical and applied science is gradually disappearing from all modern text-books, and it is obvious that, as the systematization of science and its teaching improve, the separation between physical basis and practical application, hitherto maintained, will no longer be insisted upon. In this scheme of Subject classification every class is arranged in a systematic order of scientific progression, as far as it seemed possible to maintain it; while applications directly derived from a science or other theoretical base have been placed with that science or base. Composite applications of theory have been placed with the nearest related group which would take them without strain, and, as a general rule, all through the classification the endeavor has been to maintain a scheme of one subject, one place."

The main classes designated by the letters of the alphabet are grouped under four heads—Matter and force, Life, Mind, and Record, which indicate the theory upon which the order of the classes is founded. Subdivisions under classes are numbered decimally 000 to 999. Many blanks are left throughout the classification for new subjects or further subdivision. When these blanks are exhausted expansion may be provided for by the addition of decimals. I have no information as to what extent the Subject classification is being applied in libraries.

No librarian who is seriously engaged with the classification question can fail to derive the greatest benefit from the study of Dr. Otto Hartwig's "Schema des Realkatalogs der

Königlichen Universität-bibliothek zu Halle a.S.," which was published as "Drittes Beiheft zum Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen," Leipsig, O. Harrassowitz, 1888. Although it was designed without particular reference to the wants of other libraries and developed with more fulness in certain special directions than in others, its plan and the consistent and scholarly execution of it may be regarded as constituting a prototype for libraries of its class, and the "Schema" may well be employed by such libraries with very little adaptation. The practical usefulness of it for this purpose would have been greatly enhanced if the notation actually in use had been printed. It is often erroneously supposed that the various letters and figures employed in the scheme to differentiate the rank or subordination and coördination of divisions and subdivisions form combined the notation.

During several years past requests for information in regard to its classification were received by the Library of Congress in increasing number. The interior service of the library itself could not be supplied readily with the requisite number of copies of the schedules as the reclassification advanced. To satisfy administrative requirements and to meet more promptly and satisfactorily requests from other libraries it was decided therefore to put the existing schedules into print. As the reclassification of several main classes was still in progress (three being incomplete at this date) revision of the substance had to be dispensed with for the time being, and preparation for printing was practically limited to matters pertaining to the typographical disposition and arrangement. The following statement is quoted from a descriptive pamphlet on "The Library of Congress and its work," issued in 1907:

"The new system of classification is devised from a comparison of existing schemes (including the 'decimal' and the 'expansive'), and a consideration of the particular conditions in this library, the character of its present and probable collections, and its probable use. It is assumed that the departments of history, political and social science, and certain others will be unusually large. It is assumed that investigators will be freely admitted to the shelves. The system devised has not sought to follow strictly the scientific order of subjects. It has sought rather convenient sequence of the various groups, considering them as groups of books, not as groups of mere subjects. It

has sought to avoid technical, foreign, or unusual terms in the designation of these groups. It has selected for the symbols to denote them: (1) for the classes, a capital letter or a double letter; (2) for the subclasses, these letters combined with a numeral in ordinary sequence. Provision for the insertion of future groups is: (1) in intervening numbers as yet unused; (2) in the use of decimals."

This notation secures for future development the greatest possible elasticity in providing for intercalation of new classes or subclasses as well as for divisions and subdivisions under subjects. A third letter could be resorted to without inconvenience if desired, while the numbers for divisions might be easily converted into decimals by writing them in the form 0001 to 9999. The advantage of a shorter mark for many thousands of books was considered to outweigh the slight esthetic defect of a little less symmetry in appearance. This consideration was also one of the factors which determined the incorporation of the local lists in the schedules themselves wherever a country or other local subarrangement was desired under a subject, at the loss (to a certain degree only, however) of the mnemonic value of a constant symbol for such divisions when affixed to the subject number, as is the practice in the Expansive and the Brussels schedules, and less effectively in the Dewey Decimal classification.

The other factor, and the far more important one, is that the Library of Congress arrangement permits the grouping under a country of all the subdivisions of a subject in logical order which are immediately related among themselves and have jointly a more intimate relation to the country than to the general theoretical works on the subject, while the mechanical application of a local list under every subject and various subdivisions under it has the effect of scattering in many places material which belongs together. The value of the Library of Congress practice will be recognized, I believe, if, for instance, the subarrangement of such subjects as Money, Banking and Insurance is examined in class HG. This does not preclude the introduction of more or less extended local lists under special subjects whenever that interest predominates, as is often the case with questions of the day in the stage of discussion. The schedules also embrace a mass of technical detail in the way of tables of form divisions and similar devices for the treatment

and orderly arrangement of masses of material such as official documents and the like. As a convenient and reasonable compromise between the chronological (or scientific) arrangement of single works which separates editions of the same work, and the alphabetical arrangement by author, which places side by side works belonging to different periods of development of a science, period divisions with alphabetical subarrangement have been introduced; they are fixed to correspond as nearly as may be to the periods of development of the science in any given case. Pamphlets and similar material are, however, as a rule arranged by date, even within the period division. It is hoped that such specifications in the schedules may be of service at times to others who have occasion to deal with these minor problems.

The general principle of arrangement within the classes or under subjects is as follows: (1) General form divisions: Periodicals, Societies, Collections, Dictionaries, etc. The placing of this material at the head of a class, or subject has besides its logical justification the great practical advantage of marking on the shelf, visible even at a distance the beginning of a new subject. (2) Theory. Philosophy. (3) History. (4) Treatises. General works. (5) Law. Regulation. State relations. (6) Study and teaching. (7) Special subjects and subdivisions of subjects progressing from the more general to the specific and as far as possible in logical order. When among a considerable number of coördinate subdivisions of a subject a logical principle of order was not readily discernible, the alphabetical arrangement was preferred. This general principle has also to a certain extent governed the order of the main classes, looking upon the group as a comprehensive class: A Polygraphy; B Philosophy, Religion; C—G Historical sciences; H—K Socio-political sciences, Law; L Education; M Music; N Arts; P Language and Literature; Q Science; R—V Applied sciences, Technology, etc.; Z Bibliography, the Index to the whole.

It is expected that in the course of the year all the schedules will be printed. They have been applied in the classification of over 1,000,000 volumes in the Library of Congress, and when completed will have been tested on twice that number. A number of other libraries, among them several highly specialized ones, are using this classification and have expressed themselves

well satisfied. Their experience in some cases points to the conclusion that with the Library of Congress printed cards and classification a library may be more economically cataloged and classified and with better results than by any other method at present available.

For the convenience of those who may wish to pursue the classification question in detail, reference is added to a few of the principal bibliographical sources, which may be followed with most profit:

Petzholdt, Julius. Bibliographische, systeme. (In his Bibliotheca bibliographica, Leipzig, 1866, p. 20-65.)

Fumagalli, Giuseppe. Sistemi di collocazione practicati nelle diverse biblioteche . . . (In his Della collocazione dei libri nelle pubbliche biblioteche, Firenze, 1890.)

Kephart, Horace. Classification. (In U. S. Commissioner of Education Report, 1892-3, vol. 1, chap. IX.: Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress; p. 861-897.)

Maire, Albert. Des systèmes bibliographiques. (In his Manuel pratique du bibliothécaire, Paris, 1896, p. 181-248.)

Brown, James D. Manual of library classification, London, 1898.

Richardson, Ernest C. Classification, theoretical and practical . . . together with . . . a bibliographical history of systems of classification. New York, 1901.

Graesel, Arnim. Handbuch der bibliothekslehre. 2e aufl. Leipzig. 1902. p. 228-240, 509-538.

Hortzschansky, Adalbert. Bibliographie des bibliotheks- und buchwesens 1904. Leipzig, 1905.

Annual since 1904. covers Classification under the heading Katalogisierung.

Based on the monthly lists contributed by him to the *Zentralblatt für bibliothekswesen.*

Library work [bibliography and digest of current library literature]. Minneapolis, The H. W. Wilson Company.

Quarterly since April 1906. Analyzes some twenty serial publications devoted to library interests.

THE CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGING OF CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Very comprehensive directions are given in the following contribution to *The Library Journal* of 1903, based on the writer's own experience. Miss Collar (now Mrs. Gardner) then of Pratt Institute Free Library, Brooklyn, takes up certain classes in the Decimal Classification, modified to suit conditions in a collection of children's books, and gives specific titles of books in discussing each point.

Mildred A. Collar Gardner, the daughter of William C. Collar, was born in Boston, Mass., April 14, 1874, and received her education in private schools in Boston and Dresden, Germany. She graduated from Pratt Institute Library School in 1898, and from the second year course in 1899, remaining with the school as instructor in elementary and advanced cataloging until 1909. She then become librarian to Mr. Daniel B. Fearing in Newport, R.I., classifying and cataloging his special collection of books on fish and fishing. She resigned in 1911 and married Mr. Charles C. Gardner of Newport, where she still resides. She is a member of the board of directors of the Redwood library of that city.

Within the past two years there has been evident an increasing interest in the subject of the classification and cataloging of children's books. The most recent and striking expression of this interest is manifest in the co-operative scheme of cataloging undertaken by the Cleveland Public Library and the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

Up to the present time, however, there has been no treatment of the subject as a whole which would enable children's librarians to work out principles which should serve as a basis

for a scheme of classification and cataloging for children's books. While it is hardly probable that any scheme for general use would ever be satisfactory to an individual library, the underlying principles for the performance of this work may be, and should be, the same for all libraries.

No attempt has been made in this paper to formulate such principles; this can only be done after more concentrated attention has been given to the subject and a more comprehensive expression of experience on the part of the people most closely connected with this work—the children's librarians.

What I have tried to do is to offer from the experience of one who has been closely connected for several years with the interests of a children's department while actively engaged in the teaching and actual work of cataloging, suggestions which may be useful in establishing work of a permanent character along these lines. In order that the work may attain this permanent character, it seems essential that it should be done by one who has had experience with the work of a children's room, and who has had good training in cataloging.

The growing system of branch libraries may very properly make it necessary that the work of classifying and cataloging childrens books be put into the hands of one person, but that person can only do efficient and telling work if she has had both the active experience in the work of a children's department and the technical training of a cataloger.

The fact that so many children's rooms are already well established, and that so many are not administered as separate departments, makes the problem of suggesting a scheme of classification and cataloging for general use a very difficult one.

It is far easier to adopt and carry out a special scheme if all the work is done in the children's department, and if the statistics and records are all kept separately.

Classification

Perhaps the first question to consider is whether the best scheme of classification for books in general would be, or could be, the best scheme for children's books. This would be the question theoretically stated, but in the individual library the practical question would be, "Is the scheme of classification already in use in the main library suitable for the collection of children's books?"

Judging from the answers of perhaps ten children's librarians, the majority of libraries use the same classification throughout the library. Whether this is what is desired by them, or what circumstances necessitate, it is impossible to tell.

Uniformity has long been a conspicuous watchword among catalogers, oftentimes to their undoing, but with much justice may it be said that one system of classification throughout a library is a saving of time and labor on the part of those who do this work.

It is a most difficult matter for a person to keep two schemes of classification in mind, and if that same person has not had close relations with the children's department and so can appreciate the reason for modifications and changes in the classification, it hardly seems possible that she should be able to do justice to both. But if the classifying of children's books is done by the children's librarian or in that department, this difficulty is obviated.

The argument that if children learn where to go for books on a given subject in the children's room, they will know where to go when they use the main library, the classification being the same, is, it seems to me, hardly valid. They don't want the same books as they grow older. If they did, in a very short time they would learn where to find them on open shelves, and otherwise a well constructed catalog would lead them to the right books with no assistance.

When we also consider that in cities a large proportion of the users of a public library change from year to year, and even from month to month, what a small proportion of the children ever really graduate from the children's room and use the main library! They move from place to place, go to a new library and a new system of classification has to be learned. Another objection which may be offered with much justice is that in many cases it is extremely inconvenient that a book in the library should be represented by two numbers—but here again if the children's department is administered separately there should be no real difficulty. If it is not, there are various ways of overcoming the difficulty which will be suggested under the different classes of books.

If there is so little to be gained by using the same system of classification for books for children and for adults regardless of what that classification may be, what can be gained by a change of classification or a modification of the system?

Although in so many libraries the same scheme of classification is used throughout the library, where any special work in classification or cataloging of children's books has been done, we find modifications have been introduced. At Scoville Institute fairy stories are taken out and given an F to keep them together. Animal stories are all put with books of information about animals in 590, and I is used for all books about Indians. At Brookline where the decimal classification is used, or a modification of it, the classes are less subdivided and some changes are made for the children's books. For travel the history number with decimal six is used. Biography is given the letter E and picture books are put by themselves.

These few examples illustrate some of the changes for children's books which are felt to be needed in almost any system of classification. Certain kinds and classes of books can be made more useful to children if they are on the shelves together, which in a library for adults could be scattered without disadvantage.

The modifications would vary somewhat according to the scheme of classification employed, but the following considerations of certain of the most important classes of children's books have for a basis the Dewey decimal classification.

Picture books.

All picture books should be shelved together. Those possessing true artistic merit should always be brought out in the catalog under drawings, and when advisable an illustrator card made. But the chief value of picture books in the children's department lies in the entertainment they afford very young children, both in the children's room and at home. If we attempt to classify them with art, in 741, with literature in 811 or 821, or with their subject, we shall still have many which cannot be provided for by these numbers. Moreover, it is difficult to draw the line between those in art and literature, as the following classification shows:

Caldecott's "Queen of hearts" and
"Ride a cock-horse" in 821;
Walter Crane's "This little pig" in 398,
"Red Riding-hood picture book" in 741.

Picture books illustrating an historical subject may be classed with the subject, but a better way would be to put them with picture books and bring them out under the subject in the catalog, and, of course, they should constantly be used in connec-

tion with history by the children's librarian. An example of this kind of book is De Monvel's Joan of Arc.

Picture books at the Brookline Library are given a Z, but P suggests more closely the kind of books, and has the advantage of being a clearer letter to write or print. Of course one number in the decimal classification might be chosen and given to all picture books, but a letter is simpler and at the same time more significant.

The size and varying shapes of picture books likewise makes it more convenient to shelve them together.

Easy books for little children.

This division has been suggested for two reasons, *First,* in order that we may have a collection of books regardless of subject, which the youngest children can read. *Second,* in order not to detract from the dignity of some of the classes where these books would otherwise be classified. It would be well to take from 372 (Elementary education) such books as:

Riverside primers.

Hiawatha primer, etc.

From poetry, books of rhymes and jingles. Tileston. "Sugar and spice" (821), and Mother Goose unless put with picture books.

From science, the simplest nature readers, and from literature some collections of fairy tales and fables, as:

Rolfe, *ed.* Fairy tales in prose and verse (828); and shelve them together.

These books should be placed on low shelves, and be given clear shelf-labels.

If we have the two groups, *Picture books* and *Easy books for little children,* there will be very few books to be classified with Education or with Language, and the numbers 372 and 428 may be abandoned. The children's books in our library which have been given those two numbers would almost all fall very easily into one of these two groups. There are Picture books, such as "Toyshop alphabet"; nature readers, written for very young children; Kindergarten stories; Finger plays, all of which are well suited to the youngest readers, and if desirable, the same classification numbers can be kept and a C or P added to show their proper location—with *Easy books for little children* or with *Picture books.*

Mythology, Folk-lore, and Fairy tales.

Books which fall under these headings are so closely related in subject, and in such constant demand by children that it would seem as if they should stand together on the shelves.

If classified by the Decimal Classification we find them in 398, in 291, 292, 293 and in fiction.

The best fairy tales are properly folk-lore, and it has always been difficult to know where to draw the line between folk-lore and fairy tale in any classification which required their separation. This is a distinction which need not be considered in classifying a collection of children's books.

It seems less natural to classify books on Greek and Roman mythology with folk-lore and fairy tales—the line between the two is more sharply drawn. They are so closely connected with the history, literature and art of Greece and Rome that I venture to make the suggestion that they be given the history number for those countries.

There are some objections to this classification, but it seems to me the advantages outweigh them.

Such books as Hawthorne's "Wonderbook" and "Tanglewood tales" it might be well to keep with folk-lore and fairy tales; but this would only be an exception, and such books as Bulfinch's "Age of fable," Francillon's "Gods and heroes," Niebuhr's "Greek hero stories," Baldwin's "Story of the golden age," and Zimmern's "Old tales from Greece" would stand on the shelves with such books as Bonner's "Child's history of Greece," Morris's "Historical tales," Guerber's "Story of the Greeks."

The letter F could be used for folk-lore and fairy tales, including also Norse mythology; and Greek and Roman mythology put in 937 and 938.

Science, Out-of-door books, and Nature books.

The modifications of the D. C. for books in science used in the children's room at the Brookline Library seem to suit all the requirements for children's books with but one exception, apparently no place has been provided for books on fishes.

The place for so-called nature books has never been well-defined in the Decimal Classification, and no doubt in different libraries different numbers have been used, such as 500, 504, 590, etc., none of them very good, but serving the purpose fairly well. For a collection of children's books in science two general numbers are needed. One for books on science in general, such as Hodge's "Nature study and life," Fisher's "Fairy

land of science," Cary's "Wonders of common things," Troeger's "Nature study readers," and Wallace's "Wonderful century reader," books which deal with all, or almost all, the subjects included in the Decimal classification under Science—Astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, Geology, Botany, Zoology. Another number for nature books pure and simple or so-called out-of-door books which treat of Botany and Zoology and the subjects included under them, but which should not properly be put in either 580 (Botany) or 590 (Zoology) alone. Such books are:

Miller. Brook Book. (590)
Wood. Illustrated natural history. (590)
Ingersoll. Country cousins. (590)
Lubbock. Chapters in natural science.
Buckland. Curiosities of natural history (590)

For the first division, books of science in general, the number 500 may be used as including all the subdivisions—and for the last we shall have to make a choice between 580, using 581 for books on Botany, flowers, etc., and 590, using 591 for animals, unless something better can be suggested. The general class number for all the subjects included under science, with the exception of Zoology, is quite sufficient. Special numbers are, however, required for Electricity and for Physical geography. If 537 is the number for Electricity, I should put with it all books on practical Electricity and Electrical engineering, which would usually be classed in 614 or 621.3. All books on Flowers, Trees, Ferns, and Plants should be put in a general class for Botany. It might be convenient occasionally to have all our books on Flowers together, but the amount of material in the whole class would not be large, and it is better to let the subject headings bring out the distinctions.

Under Zoology, 591 could be used for all books about Animals, whether informational or stories, 595 for Insects, 597 for Fishes, and 598 for Birds.

These divisions are much simpler than when we follow the Decimal classification more closely, and are equally satisfactory. There is also a saving of time in doing away with the distinctions between 590, 591, 596, and 599.

Literature.

It is safe to say, I think, that no children's librarian would willingly divide her books in American and English literature. Books in foreign languages should be divided by the language.

Very few divisions in literature are needed for children's books. There should be a general number for reference books, such as: Brewer's "Readers' handbook," books of quotations and general handbooks or histories of literature. These we could put in 800 or 803, the regular Decimal classification number for dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc.

808 could be used, as in the Decimal classification, for collections, or readers having any literary value.

Still another number, perhaps 810, would be needed for the individual books in literature, such as Addison's "Sir Roger de Coverly papers," Irving's "Old Christmas," "Boy's Browning," etc. Here should be put all books which according to the Decimal classification would be classed with essays, or humor, or oratory, or letters or miscellany, divisions which are useless in a children's room.

Cutter numbers should be used for books in this class, that they may be arranged on the shelves alphabetically by author.

At Brookline, Greek and Roman literature is given the history number, and considering how few books we have on the history of those countries, this arrangement should prove most useful.

If, too, the suggestion of putting Greek and Roman mythology with the history has been followed, we shall then have a very satisfactory group of books on the mythology, history, and literature of Greece and Rome, and Bulfinch's "Age of fable," Bonner's "Child's history of Greece," and Church's "Stories from Homer" will stand on the shelves together.

Poetry.

Although poetry is a form of literature, it should have a distinct number. Two divisions only are needed. For collections of poetry, and works of individual authors; 820 might be used for collections and 821 for individual works.

Biography, Collective and individual.

Biography in a children's room does not need to be classified by subject, using 920, 921, 923, etc.

Individual biography should be thrown into one alphabet, and to designate the class a letter may be used. In Brookline E, the Cutter number, is used, but B would mean more, as in the case of P for Picture books and B C could be used for collective biography.

Collective biography should likewise be thrown together re-

gardless of classification, and here a one, two, three book number is quite as useful and simpler.

Another change suggested by the Brookline Library is one which is also advocated by Mr. Cutter—to put the lives of artists with art and of musicians with music. There is a practical advantage in this, as we frequently have books to classify which treat of the subject and include biographical material as well, for example:

Lille. Story of music and musicians.

Mrs. Clement. Stories of art and artists.

History and travel.

A difficulty which all who use the Decimal classification frequently encounter is the separation of the History from the Travel and description of a country.

In a children's room it is particularly important that all the books about a country should stand together on the shelves.

In our own library in order to bring this about we have tried using labels on the backs of the books bearing the name of the country for both books of travel and history. This obviates the difficulty to some extent, but if we were to reclassify, or in the case of any library starting out afresh, it would perhaps be better to select a number which would bring them side by side on the shelves under country, and yet maintain the distinction between a book of travel and a book of history.

At the Brookline Library for Travel a decimal six with the history number is used. It is then no longer than the ordinary travel number and keeps the history, and the travel and description of a country close together.

Fiction.

The classification of children's story books by subject has been very interestingly worked out by Miss Hunt in the Newark Public Library. Miss Hunt describes her scheme in a paper which appeared in the Library Journal for February, 1902.

This arrangement of children's fiction is considered a satisfactory one in the Newark library and has been adopted by other libraries. The advantages of it seem to me to be:

First, that it brings together on the shelves the books of information and the story books belonging to a given subject. For such children as naturally read by subject this would be a useful arrangement. It should also be suggestive to teachers and students who are seeking to familiarize themselves with

children's literature and who have been accustomed to look at children's books from a different standpoint.

Second, that it requires of the children's librarian and her assistants a most careful and critical examination of the books in order to classify them properly.

The disadvantages seem to me to be:

First, that it leaves the collection of story books as a class inadequately represented on the shelves. For such children as do not naturally read by subject and who want story books as story books, this would not seem to be a good arrangement. Many of the best story books would stand with the subject and consequently these children would read a poorer book, because a better one was not at hand.

Examples: "Prince and the pauper" would appear under England, History: "Hans Brinker" under Holland; "Master Skylark" under England, History.

Second, that the work of classifying may have to be done by a person who is not qualified to give that careful and critical examination of the books which an arrangement by subject requires. Under such conditions it would certainly be unwise to attempt this method of classification.

If the idea of classifying children's fiction by subject is not deemed feasible, the simplest and most satisfactory method is to arrange the books alphabetically by author, using the Cutter number. No distinct class number is needed.

CLASSIFICATION OF FICTION

Two decades ago this subject was widely discussed. At the January meeting of the New York Library Club in 1902, a discussion of the question was opened by Josephine Adams Rathbone of the Pratt Library School, who advocated a classified fiction finding-list with author, title and subject indexes.

Miss Rathbone was born in Jamestown, N.Y., and received her education at the University of Michigan in 1887 to 1891. In 1893 she received the degree of B.L.S. from the New York State Library School. That same year, she became an assistant at the Pratt Institute Library. Since 1895 she has been connected with the Pratt Institute School of Library Science, first as chief instructor, and then as vice-director, 1911 to date.

There is no subject before the library world to-day of greater importance than the problem of fiction. As has been said, fiction is the great fact of the time. Hitherto we have for the most part dealt with it negatively; have endeavored to limit, reduce, check its circulation; but we may as well face this fact and see what can be done with it. People will read fiction; they will read a great deal of fiction, and it is altogether desirable and necessary that they should. Certainly *we* do. I venture to say that fiction forms 75 per cent. of the reading, or at least 75 per cent. of the number of books read by the majority of librarians and library assistants, and why should we expect anything else of the public?

It makes comparatively little difference whether a given library circulates 75 per cent. or 70 per cent. of fiction, but it does make a very great deal of difference what percentage of that percentage is strong, wholesome, imaginative, true fiction, the product of the great minds and great hearts of the writers of power, what percentage is of fiction dealing with the

problems and interests of the life of the day, what percentage is of morbid, introspective, decadent fiction, and what part is of the weak, sentimental, vapid or commonplace sort; and it is of the highest importance in estimating the work done by a library during a period of years to know how these percentages have relatively increased or decreased, as the result of the library's effort to better the taste of the community. Statistics of this kind would come much nearer being an index to the work of the library than any mere statement of the reduction of the percentage of fiction circulated. But how are we to determine these facts? As long as Mary J. Holmes, E. P. Roe, *et al.*, are grouped with Thackeray and George Eliot as *fiction*, as though that were all there is to it, we shall not and cannot know. And, moreover, so long as our fiction finding-lists are simply undiscriminating alphabetical lists of authors and titles, in which Mary J. and Oliver Wendell Holmes, Marion Harland and Henry Harland stand side by side, presented with sweet impartiality, how can we expect the quality of the reading done to improve very greatly?

It is the experience at the information desk in the Pratt Institute Library, as it is doubtless in every open shelf library, that many people come to the library wanting to read the best, but confessing ignorance as to what it is, and it is information of this sort, this kind of discrimination, that the reader has a right to expect from the library. It is a curious thing, a result doubtless of the effort to reduce the circulation of fiction, that the libraries have been so ready to furnish this sort of information for every other class of literature. There are few libraries so poor that they have not some lists of books and articles—their own or taken from the bulletins of other libraries—on every subject except fiction. Something has been done, of course. There are Mr. Griswold's lists of descriptive novels, Mr. Dana's list of a hundred novels, Mr. Thomson's ideas, which are beginning to be talked about, and the recent symposium in the *Saturday Times*, that showed that much thought was being directed toward the subject; but very little has been actually accomplished so far as I know.

A word just here as to what we have done ourselves may be pardoned. About five years ago a class was started in the Pratt Institute Library School, in an experimental, tentative way, which we called the Fiction Seminar. The plan was to

study, not the standard authors, with which the students were presumably familiar, but the more recent minor authors of promise and interest, of whose works we had found the average student very ignorant. I had come to realize by my own experience at the loan desk during the first few years of my work in the library the opportunities for helpful suggestions the desk assistant has, even in a closed shelf library, and the necessity of a knowledge on her part of the character and value of the largest possible number of the writers of fiction, and the course was an outcome of this realization. The plan also included a study of what we may term "border-land" fiction and of the writers of continental Europe. The aim of the study is to find out the essential characteristics of the author; the kind of work, whether novels of incident, manners, etc., influence of his work, wholesome, elevating, morbid or depressing; other writers he is nearest akin to; the kind of people to whom he would appeal, etc. With the border-land fiction, special study is made of the qualities that attract readers, the use that could be made of these books, and the writers next higher in rank whose works might be substituted, and through whom the reader could be led to better things. To stimulate thought in this direction we gave the class as a problem this year the construction of a ladder leading up from one of these "border-land" novelists whom they had studied to some author in standard fiction. The results are suggestive and interesting, of course not to be followed in any given case, but helpful.

One or two examples may not be without interest:

Rhoda Broughton: "Joan," "Nancy."
Jessie Fothergill: "Kith and kin," "Lasses of Leverhouse," "First violin."
Mrs. Walford: "Mr. Smith," "Mischief of Monica."
Walter Besant: "Chaplain of the Fleet," "Armorel of Lyonesse."
Thomas Hardy: "The woodlanders," "Far from the madding crowd."
R. D. Blackmore: "Cripps the carrier," "Kit and Kitty."
Charlotte Brontë: "Jane Eyre," "Shirley."
George Eliot: "Middlemarch," "Mill on the Floss."
Mary J. Holmes.
Rosa N. Carey.
Amanda Douglas.
Edna Lyall: "In the golden days."
Amelia Barr: "Bow of orange ribbon."

Charlotte M. Yonge.
George McDonald: "St. George and St. Michael."
Walter Scott.
Amanda Douglas.
Clara L. Burnham.
Amelia Barr.
Anthony Hope.
Marion Crawford.
Gilbert Parker.
Bulwer Lytton.
Walter Scott.
Marie Corelli—*psychical novel*: "Romance of two worlds."
"Zanoni."
"Man with the broken ear."
"Mr. Isaacs."
"Amos Judd."
"Brushwood boy."
"Peter Ibbetson."
Marie Corelli—*psychological novel*: "Sorrows of Satan."
"Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde."
"Right of way."
"Tale of two cities."
"Romola."
"Scarlet letter."
"Tess of the Durbervilles."
"Les miserables."

The students have been brought by the effort to a realization of the limitations of their own reading from the professional point of view, and to an appreciation of the need for some assistance to aid them in grouping and connecting authors of fiction. Any one who has done circulating work, especially in a closed shelf library, knows that dreadfully blank feeling experienced when called on suddenly by a borrower for a nice book "like that" (one just returned). "That" may be—we will say—"Ardath." Here is an opportunity; can she think of something "like that," only better? It may be that "Phra the Phœnician" will occur to her, or "Mr. Isaacs," but if no such happy thought comes, where shall she turn for help? The catalog is of no assistance, the alphabetically arranged rows of books on the shelves stare at her without response; with a dozen other people waiting there is no time for prolonged search, and, baffled, she hands out "The Sorrows of Satan," feeling regretfully that one chance has been missed.

It seems desirable, therefore, to have some kind of arrangement or classification of fiction, first, for the sake of the reader

who wants the best but knows not what it is, or who wants a story about some subject in which he is interested, or who would want it if he knew such an one was to be found; secondly, for the assistant, whose own reading is not adequate to all the demands made upon it; and lastly, in order that library statistics should be approximately a true measure and indication of the quality as well as the quantity of the work done.

The next question is, What kind of an arrangement? There are several possible bases for a classification of fiction.

1st. By *type* or kind. There are novels of manners and social life; novels of incident, novels of character study and development, fanciful and fantastic tales, humorous stories, simple love stories.

2nd. By *subject.* Historical novels (these may be novels of incident, as "The three guardsmen," or of manners, like "Henry Esmond," or novels of character development, like "Romola"), sociological, scientific, religious, musical, novels, and so on *ad infinitum.*

3d. By *literary quality* or the grade of the author, a rank determined in part by his personal force and in part by his literary style. Dynamic force and literary quality are very different things, of course, and yet as manifested in literature they are so combined that it would be hardly possible to separate them as bases of arrangement.

4th. By *ethical influence.* This I mention merely as a possibility. It would be too difficult to determine to be practicable for use, but it would probably be found to be a factor in determining the rank of an author.

Now, which of these is the more important and which would be the more available in actual use? This must, I think, be considered in relation to the next question, which is of equal importance. How are we to apply practically this idea of fiction classification? On the shelves, in the catalogs, or by means of lists and bulletins?

Taking up for a moment the arrangement on the shelves; shall we arrange our fiction by kind, grouping the novels of incident, manners, character development? That is probably the line of cleavage along which our individual preferences divide. Some of us dislike novels of incident, others especially enjoy novels of character development, but too often the same book

is enjoyed by different people for different reasons, and there would be great difference of opinion as to what type of novel any given story might be. This basis is therefore not to be seriously considered, I think. It is perfectly possible to work out a scheme for classifying novels by subject; the Decimal or the Expansive classification could be used with very little difficulty, as there are novels that would go into all of the main classes and many of the subdivisions. The difficulty in such a scheme is that it would separate the novels by the same author, and a very large number of people read novels because of their fondness for a given author rather than because of the subject dealt with.

It would be very possible to grade fiction into three or four classes by the rank of the author, an aristocracy, an upper middle class, a lower middle class, and a lowest class. These could be marked 1, 2, 3, 4, with a Cutter number for the author. One great objection to this plan is that there are very many authors whose work belongs in more than one class—Charles Reade, for example. "The cloister and the hearth" would belong in 1, "Foul play" and "White lies" in 2 "A terrible temptation" in 3 or 4. Bulwer's work belongs in at least three classes. Many authors have one or two best novels very much above the rest, and this difference could not be emphasized by such an arrangement. For this reason I am strongly attracted by an idea worked out by Mr. E. W. Gaillard, of the Webster Free Library for designating the rank of books by covers of different colors. By this plan the works of an author could be kept together, the authors arranged in alphabetical order, and yet the grade of the individual book shown unmistakably. Stars or other labels of different colors could be used by libraries that object to the use of covers, and the same designation on the book-card would enable the statistics to be kept by class.

But when it comes to the catalog, the thing is much more simple. Working on a suggestion received some time ago from Miss Hitchler, then of the New York Free Circulating Library, I have for several years advised our classes to make subject headings for fiction in their dictionary catalogs, and have given them practice in so doing. They have done this not only for historical fiction but for novels dealing with social, religious, and other questions, and I hope have carried on the practice in

their own library work. Much can be done in this way to encourage the purposeful reading of fiction. The manner of treatment of the subject, whether it be a novel of incident and complicated plot, a novel of manners and social life, or a novel of character study, could be indicated by a note on the card, and such facts as that of the narration being in the first person and the use of dialect, should also be noted.

But the best field for this kind of work is the fiction finding list. Instead of the simple alphabet of authors and titles, of which most of our finding-lists consist, we could have a classified list, with author and title and subject indexes, the great books in each class indicated by an asterisk or other sign, or a dictionary list with subject headings and references, or graded lists with subject arrangement and indexes. The possibilities here are boundless. Of course the serious impediment in the way is the absence of any aids to the making of such lists. Few of us know our fiction sufficiently to care to expose our knowledge to the rude gaze of the world. What is needed before any such plan becomes practical is a subject index to fiction, which to be successful must be the result of cooperative action. Some library association, or group of associations, could render no more important service to the cause of improved reading than by taking up this work.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF CHILDREN'S STORY BOOKS

The reasons for such classification and its results are summed up by Clara Whitehill Hunt, as based upon her own experience in the children's room of the Newark Public Library, one of the reasons being that the children are apt to ask for a book by subject; another that "the dividing line in books for children between fact in story form and real information is so narrow that it is often a puzzle to the classifier to know where to place them."

Miss Hunt says by way of comment in a recent letter to the editor: "I found the plan interesting and useful in those young days, but I have never used it in this complicated library system (the Brooklyn Public Library) nor would I think it at all worth-while to install it." A sketch of Miss Hunt will be found in Volume II of this series.

All librarians who have had experience in supplying the wants of boys and girls, are familiar with the requests "Please give me a good Indian story." "Have you any stories of the Crusades or Chivalry?" "We are studying about the Norman Conquest, and the teacher wants us to read some stories of that period." Teachers come to the librarian asking for animal stories or fiction relating to children of other countries; fairy tales are perennially in demand. Having felt the need of some means of getting at the fiction illustrating certain often-called-for subjects more quickly than by searching from A to Z on the fiction shelves, it was decided by the Newark Free Public Library that before opening the new children's room, the juvenile story books worthy of such treatment should be so classified that any person desiring material on the Civil War, or the Navy, or the French Revolution, might find by

the side of the serious books of information on these subjects such good stories as would add to the child's interest in those lines.

This step was decided upon for a number of reasons. In the first place, with a few exceptions, children were more apt to ask for stories by subject than by author. To give what was asked for quickly one must either know the books more thoroughly and have a memory trained to respond more quickly than the average library attendant, or else one must have classified lists ready at hand. To consult such lists and hunt up the numbers takes time, and it is impossible to keep a printed list up to date. Again, the dividing line in books for children between fact in story form and real information books is so narrow that it is often a puzzle to the classifier to know where to place them. Much of the best information is given in what must be classed as fiction, thus what would be valuable help in study is lost sight of. Further, in an open shelf room it is desirable in every way to help the people to help themselves, and this is particularly true in the children's department where practically all the work with the boys and girls is done between the hours of four and six on school days, and no library is so rich as to be able to provide attendants enough for answering every timid request of every child.

Upon thinking over this matter with deliberation we decided to classify our juvenile fiction, and having worked out a scheme which, after nine months of use we can pronounce entirely successful, it was thought that other children's librarians might be interested in hearing of the method.

For months before the children's room was opened, while doing her regular work at the bureau of information, the future children's librarian took for her "knitting work" the examination of all juvenile books in the library. First a shelf list on slips the size of the ordinary catalog card was made. Little by little each book was gone over more or less thoroughly. On each slip was entered the catalog form of author's name, full title, place, publisher and date of publication, with a note describing the book—its literary merit, subject, scope, to what age adapted, etc. If the book seemed likely to be a useful addition to the child's information on any subject, the class number of that subject was written in red ink below the call number of the book, for future use.

Having decided to place stories of the Civil War next to the histories of that struggle, the problem was how to mark the books so that they would be returned to such shelves, without really changing the class numbers, since it would be manifestly unfair to mark "Two little Confederates" with 973.7 and get the credit for circulating a larger "hundreds" per cent. than was actually the case! Also if the books were really to be classified anew, it would mean changing the numbers on hundreds of shelf and catalog cards, a piece of work too stupendous to be contemplated.

The first point was then, to mark the back label so that the book would stay on the 973.7 shelf. But back labels slip off and become dirty, therefore the class number should appear in some safe place within the book. The book plate was naturally best for this permanent record. Next it was reasoned that, as the persons marking back labels usually did so from the book slip in the back and not from the book plate in front, this number must also be written on the book slip; and as this new number was to be merely a shelf direction and not an actual classification, it was to be always in red ink. Below may be seen a sample of book plate, book slip, and back label of "Two little Confederates."

Book plate.

[Form A. C. D.]

FREE PUBLIC LIBRARY

NEWARK, N. J.

CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT

Class F No. P. 141

Shelf 973.7

Book slip

973.7

[Form B. C. D.]

F | P 141

BOOK SLIP

ISSUED TO	DATE OF ISSUE

Label.

P 141

973.7

It will be noticed that the red ink number on the book slip is placed over the class and book numbers. In arranging and counting slips for each day's circulation this number is entirely ignored. On the back label the red ink number is below the book number, the reverse of our plan of marking in case of a real classification. This is done that no mistake be made in claiming the story as equal with history.

So much for records on the book itself.

Next it must be made easy for all attendants to find any book whether asked for by author, title, or call number. The new number must therefore appear on all catalog cards and on the shelf list. Following the plan of calling the red number a subject reference only, it is placed below the real call number. A sample of catalog and shelf cards is given:

Title card.

Two little Confederates.
Page, T. N.
P141
973.7

Author card.

Page, T. N.
Two little Confederates.
P141
973.7

Shelf card.

Page, T. N.
Two little Confederates.
P141
973.7
31063

It was known in advance that when moving time came the juvenile books were to be renovated and put in thorough repair. This would give the opportunity for collecting and marking all books which were to have the "subject reference." In order to be able, when that time came, to gather such books quickly, the children's librarian, at the time of examining each story and writing its subject reference on her shelf slip, also made two call slips (long, thin strips of paper) marked thus:

P 141
973.7

When we were ready to begin work — when the movers had deposited our children's books on the shelves in the beautiful new room, and the shining tables soon to be surrounded by eager youngsters were temporarily filled with books to be repaired, books to be marked, books to be covered, books to be discarded, new books to be accessioned, shelf-listed, etc., the room became a hive of busy workers. One of the messengers, taking a bunch of call slips referred to above, collected the stories to be classified. Placing the call slip with its subject reference in the title-page of the book, they were soon separated from other books of fiction and ready for marking. Opening day saw Kirkland's "History of England," Bennett's "Master Skylark," Henty's "Wulf the Saxon," Church's "Stories from English history," Pyle's "Men of iron," etc., hobnobbing together on the 942 shelf as if they knew they belonged in the same neighborhood.

To be perfectly candid, and to help others who may desire to adopt this scheme I must tell of a few difficulties we experienced in the beginning and how we disposed of them.

When the children came to the library in person and made their own selections, there were no difficulties. But when call slips came in through the delivery stations with a long list of H39's (which few librarians need to be told are the Henty numbers), our messengers were obliged to refer to the slips bearing reference numbers to know where H3957, H3966, etc., were shelved. This took a good deal of time at first, but we soon saw a way out of the difficulty. Having no printed juvenile catalog we were about to issue a double number of our *Library News* containing a fairly complete author list of books in the children's department. In this list we gave the new numbers thus:

Goss, W. L.	Jed.	G692(973.7)
Thackeray, W. M.	The rose and the ring.	T3221(398)

After the boys and girls had been provided with this num-

ber of the *News,* call slips came in through the stations so made out that books wherever shelved were quickly found.

Another objectionable feature was that on books coming back from the bindery gilded with their library numbers only, we were obliged to paste a back label bearing the red ink reference number under the gilded number. But this was such a waste of time that we soon had the binder gild the reference number also, in smaller type, underneath the fiction call number, thus:

W 51
—
590

Since these matters have been satisfactorily settled, the system has given no trouble whatever. I can truthfully say, and all who have helped in the chilrden's room agree, that classifying the juvenile fiction has proved not only desirable but so indispensable that we should feel lost without it. The children "take to it" as naturally as ducks to water, and teachers apparently think there could be no other scheme of arranging our books. It is the quickest way of collecting all material in any line for immediate reference. You place the applicant before the shelves where her subject is represented and leave her to look them over at her leisure. There is no consulting of catalogs, sending messengers to hunt up a long list of numbers to bring the books together and later distribute them back to their shelf. This work is all done in advance and the saving in time after the change has been made is great.

It may be of interest to tell of some of our adaptations of the Decimal classification which would be diverting to Mr. Dewey, I have no doubt. For example it requires a stretch of the imagination to guess why "Robinson Crusoe" and "Treasure Island" are classed in 359, the number for histories of the navy. But the connection is obvious if you reason with the boy who classes together in his mind all books about adventure at sea, shipwrecks, desert islands, etc. So in our 359's we have Lossing's "History of the U. S. navy," Seawell's "Little Jarvis," Alden's "Cruise of the Canoe Club," Munroe's "Dorymates," the two books above mentioned and others of their kind, and as the boys see no incongruity we are not concerned if classifiers do.

In 398 we place all fairy tales, whether a book deserves the folk lore number or is merely a fanciful invention of a modern author. Most animal stories except those on birds we put in 590, for in this fiction classification we use only broad classes, not thinking it worth while to carry it down to a very fine point. In the English history stories above mentioned "Wulf the Saxon," "Men of iron," and "Master Skylark" although relating to the Saxon, Lancastrian and Tudor periods respectively are placed in the general English history number 942 without any of its period subdivisions.

When the new room opened we had taken about 450 story books off the fiction shelves and placed them with history, fairy tales, etc. As new books are added we treat them in the same way.

Below is given a list of all the class numbers we have used, with an example of stories so treated, excepting modern history, travel and biography, of which many examples will immediately occur to every librarian:

353 Austin. Uncle Sam's secrets.
398
500 Booth. Sleepy-time stories.
537 Trowbridge. Electrical boy.
595.7 Noel. Buz.
598.2
600 Walsh. Young folks' ideas.
770 Black. Captain Kodak.
820 Richardson. Stories from old English poetry.
900 Andrews. Ten boys, etc.
930 Stoddard. Swordmaker's son.
932 Henty. Cat of Bubastes.
933 Henty. For the temple.
937 Church. Two thousand years ago.
938 Church. Three Greek children.

CLASSIFICATION

At the Louisville conference of the American Library Association, in 1917, a series of papers was presented on the making of classifications. The first speaker, Mr. A. Law Voge, gave the fundamentals, such as the selection of general headings, form divisions, inclusion of subjects, and cross references. Mr. Clement W. Andrews carried the subject along by discussion among other points of the alphabetical and chronological sequences of subdivisions. According to Charles A. Flagg of Bangor, Me., who followed, the makers of a classification should define the class so that "the classifier will not need to refer to precedent." The next speaker, Mr. J. Christian Bay, is quoted in full below. The symposium ended with a talk on "The Problem and Theory of Classification" by Henry E. Bliss, who brought out the following principles:—the correlation of class to concept; the relativity of classes; the economy of classification with expansibility and adaptation, and the correlation of the whole for maximum efficiency in service.

Jens Christian Bay was born in Denmark in 1871, and educated at the University of Copenhagen. He came to this country in 1892 and has held the following posts: assistant at the Missouri Botanical Garden (St. Louis, Mo.), 1892 to 1895; bacteriologist of the Iowa State Board of Health, 1895 to 1899; assistant in the Library of Congress, 1900 to 1905; classifier, 1905 to 1912, and afterward medical reference librarian and supervising classifier, in the John Crerar Library (Chicago, Ill.).

To build a classification system requires a mental activity and a practical sense similar to what is required in the plan-

ning and building of a house. Both structures are aimed to be used by live humanity. The books at our elbow contain the first suggestion for their systematic arrangement. A second suggestion is contained in the history of the subjects of which they treat. Another helpful hint is contained in the purpose and the actual use of that library through which the books are offered for public use.

Time was when the patrons of a library seemed quite unconcerned about the professional art of the librarian. We have inherited from that time a system of cataloging which fails much in conveying an adequate impression of the books to the minds of the readers. In the building of classification schemes, we now are awake to the fact that books can be arranged so that readers endowed with good will and ordinary intelligence can comprehend the result. But the *use* of a library contains many a valuable suggestion for the classification scheme.

This suggestion serves as a useful counter-irritant to that tendency toward a hermetic and sacred exclusiveness which develops in almost any profession. Many of us undoubtedly have constructed classification schemes in the spirit that we were organizing the science, or subject, and putting its literary monuments in order, as if we were arranging a bibliography. This is a noble ambition, but it may mislead us entirely. Even the most systematic arrangement of subjects within a science or an art may fail to locate properly many of the very books we are striving to accommodate.

One of the first requisites in classification building seems to be determining the natural place of the library's books as viewed by the relative locality of the subject and the use of the books. This means a logical balance between a scientifically defensible arrangement and the anticipated use. This balance can be struck only by an experiment, or a series of experiments. The logical sequence of subjects usually is easy to attain and needs no experiment, but the experiment brings out all the natural groups of books not anticipated by logic, history, or system.

Another advantage of experimental development of classification schemes lies in the recognition of identical forms of books under varying names. It is possible to recognize this in the classification, but frequently we may find that the cata-

log, or shelf list, will admit of historical grouping far better than the shelf arrangement will.

Close classification has its great advantages, but also leaves the door open for interminable minor changes and modifications, — and, worse yet, for a minuteness so intricate that it defies even good will and average intelligence. It also brings into prominence the notation. There is a growing and justified tendency to discard unnecessarily elaborate notation schemes, and to insist on a call number which will reduce, instead of increase, the forced attention of readers and attendants to minute details not of first importance in the working of the library.

We are approaching an age when, in many classes of literature, the author entry is secondary in importance to the classification entry or to the subject heading. It is of less consequence, from a social point of view, who did the work than how it was done. In classification, similarly, it is more important, as Mr. Campbell once put it, that everything pertaining to a certain subject is kept in one pigeonhole and that pigeonhole is numbered,—this is relatively more important than that the last word on the subject, in the philosophy of science, has been heard. For the last word in philosophy of science may be recalled to-morrow, and a new consensus asked; but libraries cannot, and should not, change their classification schemes with every change in the philosophic points of view. None of us has faith in indiscriminate pigeonholing; but each and all will see the advantage of experimental development of classification groups based upon the balance between logical locality and practical use. As this is done more and more, it will be seen that the cataloging and the classification scheme may interact in such a way that an adequate presentation of books will result.

CATALOGING

In its relation to the library, the catalog may be compared to the index of a book as it is the key to the collection, and Carlyle once said that the worst catalog ever drawn was better than no catalog at all.

A catalog is a very costly thing to make and reforming trustees are often tempted to give it up or scrimp it; but common sense teaches that, having once sunk money in a building and a store of books, it is poor economy not to go to that additional expense which will double their usefulness.—Charles Ammi Cutter.

THE SMITHSONIAN CATALOG SYSTEM

In 1853, the librarians of the country gathered in New York City for their first professional conference. Professor Charles C. Jewett, librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, was elected president, and in addition to the presidential address he presented a paper on "The Smithsonian Institution and Its Plan of Cataloging." The description of the catalog system is of special interest, for it foreshadows centralized cataloging and suggests a plan of cooperation in the publication of a standard catalog, the stereotyped entries to be available for use by any library having the books. The plan was favorably considered by librarians for years, but it remained for a commercial firm to take the initiative in 1908, with the publishing of a fiction catalog.

Charles Coffin Jewett was born in Lebanon, Maine, August 12, 1816. He graduated from Brown University in 1835 and two years later entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, where he held the position of librarian, the library being open three hours a week. In 1835, he was engaged to catalog the collection of books at Brown University and in 1843 the catalog was completed and published. He was then appointed Professor of Modern Languages and Literature at Brown and was sent abroad to purchase books for the library. In 1846, Professor Jewett was appointed librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, and in 1858 he became the superintendent of the Boston Public Library, where he served until his death ten years later.

The catalogue system of which I intend to speak, is one of those enterprises which could not have been carried into oper-

ation except under the protection and guidance of the Smithsonian Institution; nor can it be successful, unless it meets the hearty approval and cooperation of other libraries. I wish, therefore, to present the matter fully and explicity to this Convention.

Few persons, except librarians, are aware of the nature and extent of the difficulties which have been encountered in attempting to furnish suitable printed catalogues of large and growing libraries; difficulties apparently insurmountable, and menacing a common abandonment of the hope of affording guides, so important, to the literary accumulation of the larger libraries of Europe.

While the catalogue of a large library is passing through the press, new books are received, the titles of which it is impossible, in the ordinary manner of printing, to incorporate with the body of the work. Recourse must then be had to a supplement. In no other way can the acquisitions of the library be made known to the public. If the number of supplements be multiplied, as they have been in the library of Congress, the student may be obliged to grope his weary way through ten catalogues, instead of one, in order to ascertain whether the book which he seeks be in the library. He cannot be certain, even then, that the book is not in the collection, for it may have been received since the last appendix was printed. Supplements soon become intolerable. The whole catalogue must then be re-arranged and re-printed. The expense of this process may be borne so long as the library is small, but it soon becomes burdensome, and, ere long, insupportable, even to national establishments.

There is but one course left—not to print at all. To this no scholar consents, except from necessity. But to this alternative, grievous as it is, nearly all the large libraries of Europe have been reluctantly driven.

More than a century has passed, since the printing of the catalogue of the Royal Library at Paris was commenced. It is not yet finished. No one feels in it the interest which he would, if he could hope to have its completeness sustained, when once brought up to a given date.

Not one European library, of the first class, has a complete printed catalogue, in a single work. The Bodleian Library is not an exception. It may be necessary to search six distinct

catalogues, in order to ascertain whether any specified book was or was not in that collection, at the close of the year 1847.

This is, surely, a disheartening state of things. It has been felt and lamented by every one who has had the care of an increasing library.

As a remedy for this evil, it is proposed to stereotype the titles separately, and to preserve the plates or blocks in alphabetical order of the titles, so as to be able readily to insert additional titles, in their proper places, and then to reprint the whole catalogue. By these means, the chief cost of republication (that of composition) together with the trouble of revision and correction of the press, would, except for new titles, be avoided. Some of the great difficulties which have so long oppressed and discouraged librarians, and involved libraries in enormous expenses, may thus be overcome.

The peculiar position of the Smithsonian Institution suggested the application of this plan, on a wider scale, and for a more important purpose, than that of merely facilitating the publication of new and complete editions of separate catalogues.

It had been proposed to form a general catalogue of all the books in the country, with reference to the libraries where each might be found. The plan of stereotyping titles separately, suggested the following system for the accomplishment of this important purpose:

1. The Smithsonian Institution to publish rules for the preparation of Catalogues.

2. Other institutions, intending to publish catalogues of their books, to be requested to prepare them in accordance with these rules, with a view to their being stereotyped under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution.

3. The Smithsonian Institution to pay the whole extra expense of stereotyping, or such part thereof as may be agreed upon.

4. The stereotyped titles to remain the property of the Smithsonian Institution.

5. Every library acceding to this plan, to have the right of using all the titles in the possession of the Institution, as often as desired, for the printing of its own catalogue by the Smithsonian Institution, paying only the expense of making up the pages, of press-work, and of distributing the titles to their proper places.

6. The Smithsonian Institution to publish as soon as possible, and at stated intervals, a General Catalogue of all Libraries coming into this system.

I have already presented to members of the Convention copies of an unfinished work entitled the "Smithsonian Catalogue System." It contains: 1. A detailed account of the system; 2. Rules for the preparation of Catalogues; 3. Examples illustrating the rules. As to the first two matters, the work is complete. It was intended to print as examples the titles of all the works, in the department of bibliography and literary history, in the Smithsonian Library. These titles, to the number of one thousand, are stereotyped and ready for use. The progress of the work was interrupted by the sickness and absence of two of the men on whom we relied. I have been able to print off a few copies, by using the type for the last form of the rules instead of the stereotype plates as in the rest of the book, by limiting the number of examples and omitting the indexes. I hope in a few weeks to be able to finish this book, and to present it through the Smithsonian Institution to the public, as the first detailed publication of the system. About three years ago I read a paper on the subject before the American Scientific Association. I did not present the matter before the public, till the practicability of stereotyping by separate titles had been demonstrated. Practical stereotypers had said that it could not be done. But the perseverance and ingenuity of a gentleman now present, the Rev. Mr. Hale, of Worcester, showed that it could be done by the electrotype process, and even by the common stereotype process. This point once proved, we sought the *best* method of executing the work. About this time, Mr. Josiah Warren, of Indiana, called our attention to the new process and material for stereotyping which he had patented. We gave them a thorough trial, and at last adopted them. We have done much to perfect the process, and we are now ready to show to experts in practical printing the results which we have attained. The perfecting of this mode of stereotyping, the adaptation of it to our purposes, and the arrangement of the practical details for the great work upon which we are commencing, have consumed much time and demanded great labor. The mechanical difficulties which we have had to meet and overcome will be appreciated by printers and stereotypers. The bibliographical difficulties will be fully understood by li-

brarians. As soon as the practicability of the system had been established, as fully as it could possibly be, before its actual application on a large scale, and the value of it to the world of learning had been considered and proclaimed by a commission of the most competent men to whom the subject was referred by the Smithsonian Institution, the matter was presented to the Joint Library Committee of Congress. They considered it fully, and in the most liberal spirit, and finally recommended to Congress an appropriation for the cataloguing of its library upon this plan. This appropriation was readily granted. It is sufficient to enable us to prosecute the work till next December or January. It is not enough to finish the catalogue, but it is all that was asked for. We wish to proceed cautiously—demonstrating, step by step, the practicability and usefulness of our operations. The work on the catalogue of the Library of Congress is now in progress. The system is therefore in actual operation.

The title of every book and of each distinct edition is stereotyped upon a separate plate. The author's name also stands by itself. Each plate shows at a glance the heading to which it belongs. It is obvious that these plates may be placed together in alphabetical or other order, as may be desired. They are mounted on blocks, for printing like other stereotype plates. The great ends to be gained are:

1. To avoid the necessity of preparing, composing, and correcting anew the titles once printed, when the Library has received accessions, or the alternative of printing the titles of these accessions in supplements, which are very inconvenient appendages.

2. To prevent the repetition of the work of preparation of titles, composition and correction of press, for copies of the same book in different libraries. The title once prepared and stereotyped, remains at the Smithsonian Institution, to be used by any Library having the same book.

3. To secure uniformity in the construction of catalogues, thus greatly facilitating the researches of the student.

It is obvious that the cost of the first catalogue will be greater than if it were not stereotyped. The work of preparation will also be more expensive. But the additional cost of the first edition will be more than saved in the first reprinting of the whole catalogue. It will be further understood that the

sum paid by the first Library is not only for its own benefit, but for that of every other Library hereafter adopting the plan, so far as its books are the same. Congress is therefore now conferring a great boon upon other Libraries, while at the same time it is taking the course, in the end most economical, for the construction of the catalogues of its own library. There will also be a great saving of the expense of paper and press-work under this system. It is customary now to print off a larger number of copies of every catalogue than are immediately wanted, because it cannot be known how many may be required before the catalogue can be reprinted. On this plan, when a new edition, with all additions incorporated, can be had at any time, it will not be thought necessary to print more copies than enough to meet the immediate demand.

It should be mentioned as one of the most important advantages of this system, that it affords the means of attaining great accuracy in the catalogues. Every effort will be made to secure accuracy in the first instance. Librarians will not, however, be surprised to find numerous errors. This system offers the best means of detecting and correcting these errors. Every time that a title is used for a new catalogue, it must be very carefully compared with the book itself. Every mistake and variation will be reported in a friendly spirit, and immediately corrected. The catalogue will thus be constantly undergoing a process of verification and improvement.

Upon all these topics I have dwelt more fully and systematically in the pamphlet to which I have alluded. It may not be amiss for me to notice one or two objections which may occur to the minds of practical printers against the use of these stereotype plates. One is, that the plates, being used so often, will become worn, and that when new plates are inserted, the difference between the new and old plates will be observable on the printed sheets.

To this objection I can say in reply: First, the number of copies required for each catalogue would be so small that it would be many years before there would be any noticeable difference between the old and new plates, were they made from common type metal. But, secondly, the material which we employ is harder than type metal, and resists much longer the wear of the press. I presume that a run of 100,000 copies would not make any observable difference between the old plates and the new.

Another difficulty which may suggest itself to some, is in keeping the register and preserving the uniform length of pages. The register, so far as the top and sides of the page are concerned, can be kept most perfectly. Variations in the length of the pages cannot be entirely avoided. But if some pages be longer or shorter by three or four lines, it is not a very serious matter. It may offend a printer's eye, but would not be noticed by the general reader. I may remark, however, that there are several ways of reducing the inequalities. Very long titles may be stereotyped in two or three pieces. The titles on a short page may be spread apart, making the matter a little more open and thus elongating the page. The catalogue may be printed in double-column folio. This size is preferable for a catalogue on other accounts. It presents more titles to the eye at once, and it also saves paper.

I would not be understood as insisting upon the catalogue being in folio, nor, indeed, upon its being alphabetical. These are matters not essential to the system. Each librarian can choose for himself; the system possessing this great advantage, that it is equally applicable to the folio, quarto, or octavo size; to alphabetical and to classed catalogues.

There is one other point which may be noticed. This kind of catalogue is not recommended for all purposes for which a catalogue or list of books may be desirable. It is proposed as the standard catalogue for reference in every library containing works of permanent value. It is proposed as the basis for all other apparatus, such as indexes, shelf-lists, "finding catalogues" or short title catalogues, which it may be thought that the peculiar circumstances of any library or every library require. From this catalogue all others may easily be made. This is supposed to be, in general, the first and most important of all the means for rendering a library serviceable to all classes of persons who may consult it.

With respect to the rules for preparing catalogues, it may be proper to make a few explanatory remarks. They were formed after a careful study of those adopted for the preparation of the catalogue of the British Museum. They were examined and discussed in detail by the catalogue commission appointed by the Smithsonian Institution. They have been carefully revised to meet exigencies which have occurred in the practical application of them. That they are perfect and all-sufficient, is not, indeed, to be supposed. On many points there

would be a difference of opinion. An effort has been earnestly and honestly made to frame the best possible code. But whether it be absolutely the best or not, the great desideratum of uniformity will be attained by the adoption of it.

The practical operation of the rules has been considered, no less than the theoretical perfection of the catalogue. It is necessary to frame such rules as we may reasonably expect to be able to follow. I would gladly have required that the number of pages of every book (distinguishing those of prefatory and appended matter) and the names of publishers should in all cases be given. But these would require much additional time and labor, and would considerably increase the bulk of the catalogue. It was thought best, therefore, to omit them. We must endeavor to make the catalogue accurate so far as it goes. The examination of the book should be thorough. Additional particulars may hereafter be added in the form of notes, without disturbing the work first done.

The work upon which we have entered is not the work of a day, nor of a year. It demands long-continued, patient labor. Should it be successful, as we have every reason to hope that it will be, its best results will be realized after we have ceased from our labors. But its immediate results will amply reward our efforts. Some of them are now almost attained. The catalog of the Library of Congress will, it is hoped, be a valuable gift to the bibliographical world. To the list now nearly ready for publication, of the books in the department of bibliography and literary history, belonging to the Smithsonian Library, it will be easy to add those in other libraries not already catalogued. We can then present to librarians a complete catalogue of the bibliographical apparatus to be found in the country. Catalogues of books in other branches of knowledge are now in preparation. As we thus proceed from library to library, and from one department of learning to another, each work will be complete and useful in itself, while it constitutes a finished portion of the general catalogue.

THE NEW CATALOGUES OF THE (HARVARD) COLLEGE LIBRARY

An article which appeared in the Harvard college report for 1863, giving a full description of both the author and classed catalogs kept on cards. Ezra Abbot, then assistant librarian, says in it that as far as he knows, the latter, begun in 1861, is the first attempt at such an arrangement. In a previous paragraph, he states the fact that the great advantage of keeping the alphabetical catalog of a rapidly-growing library on cards, each containing a separate title, is now generally acknowledged. A footnote adds the information that the titles of all the additions to the library, including pamphlets, maps and engravings had been written on cards since 1850; before that date the titles were written in folio volumes.

Ezra Abbot was born in Jackson, Maine, on April 28, 1819. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1840 and was appointed assistant librarian at Harvard University in 1856, remaining there until 1872, when he became Professor of New Testament Criticism in the Divinity School. He died in Cambridge, Mass. on March 21, 1884.

As the two new catalogues of the College Library which are now in progress present some novel features, I have been requested by several members of the Examining Committee to prepare a written description of them, to be laid before the Committee, should such be their pleasure, on the present occasion. I accordingly submit the following statement.

The object of the first of these catalogues, which is called by way of distinction the "Index of AUTHORS," is to enable a person to determine readily whether any particular work belongs to the Library, and if it does, where it is placed. The

object of the second, the "Index of SUBJECTS," is to serve as a guide to all the separate works in the Library on any particular subject. These catalogues also include the treatises which are contained in Collections, and in the Transactions of learned societies; and they are likewise intended to embrace, as far as practicable, articles in the more important periodical publications. Both of them are freely and conveniently accessible to all who use the Library.

To prevent misapprehension, it should be observed that these new catalogues do not supersede the alphabetical manuscript catalogue of additions to the Library, with full titles, which has for many years been kept on cards. The cards of that catalogue—which is particularly designed for the Librarian's use—not only receive the title of every volume and pamphlet added to the Library, but a note of its condition as to binding, of the date of its reception, and the name and residence of the donor, if the work is a gift; if purchased, its cost and the fund to which it is charged are specified. The class (or classes) to which the work belongs is also noted, so that both an abridged alphabetical catalogue and a classed catalogue may readily be formed from the cards. Though in distinction from this Librarian's catalogue the new catalogues for common use are termed *Indexes,* this word is employed rather in its etymological than in its popular sense. The titles of books are given in the first, or Index of Authors, with at least as much fulness as in the printed Catalogue of the Library published in 1830; in the Index of Subjects they are often given with much greater fulness.

The need of an *alphabetical* catalogue of authors and anonymous works for those who use the Library of Harvard College is shown by the fact that they have had no such guide, directly accessible, to the 67,000 volumes and 68,000 pamphlets which have been added to it during the last thirty years. The printed Catalogue with its Supplement includes nothing received since September 1st, 1833; and the two manuscript catalogues, which together embrace the later additions, are accessible only through the Librarian or some assistant.* The want of a *classed* catalogue has been still more deeply felt, as, with the exception of

* These manuscript catalogues are the card catalogue, with full titles, described above, and an alphabetical catalogue of the *pamphlets* received from September 1, 1833, to June 30th, 1850, inclusive, the titles of which occupy eight large folio volumes. Since the date last mentioned, the titles of all the additions to the Library, including pamphlets, maps, and engravings, have been written on cards.

a few references and a very imperfect Biographical Index, there has been no attempt to provide anything of the kind, either in print or manuscript, since the "Systematic Index" published in 1830. That Index, though a work of great care and labor, is merely a classified collection of *references* to the printed Alphabetical Catalogue which it accompanies.

NEW ALPHABETICAL CATALOGUE, OR "INDEX OF AUTHORS."

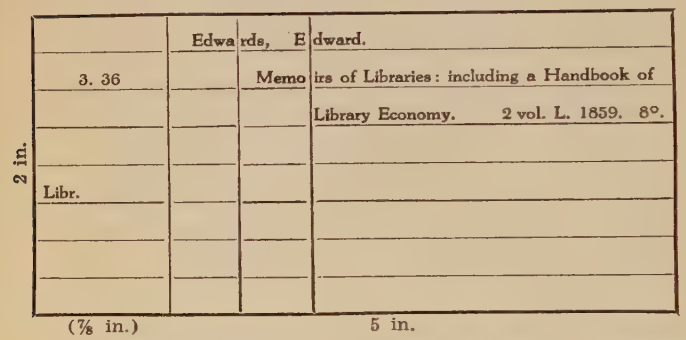
In a catalogue designed to answer the question whether a particular work belongs to a library, the entries of titles should be under the names of the authors, given in full, with great care to avoid confusion of persons. Anonymous and pseudonymous works, periodicals, and publications of governments and societies require to be entered according to special rules, which need not be stated here. Numerous cross-references of various kinds are also absolutely necessary to secure the object of a good alphabetical catalogue; for the number of works which one cataloguer would place under one heading, and another cataloguer under a different one, is very large.

If the library is one of considerable magnitude, fulness in regard to the *names of authors* is of great importance; but, for the particular purpose mentioned, fulness of *title* is not important. The principal object of the alphabetical catalogue being simply to determine whether a particluar work belongs to the library, if it gives the title of a book with sufficient fulness to enable a person to identify it with that of which he is in quest, its purpose is answered. The printed title may therefore often be greatly abridged; but its language should not be altered, and all additions to it should be enclosed in brackets. The words of the title may sometimes be abbreviated, and the names of a few of the most common places of publication, as London, Paris, Boston and New York, may even be represented by their initial letters.

The new Alphabetical Catalogue of the College Library, commenced October 22d, 1861, is constructed in accordance with these principles. Each title is written on a separate card, five inches long and two inches wide, ruled lengthwise with seven blue lines, one quarter of an inch apart, and crosswise with three red lines, three-eighths of an inch apart, the first of them being seven-eighths of an inch from the left-hand margin of the card. The space thus marked off on the left contains a note

of the alcove and shelf or other place in the Library where the book or pamphlet is to be found, and of the class or classes under which it stands in the Index of Subjects.

FORM OF THE CARD ON A REDUCED SCALE



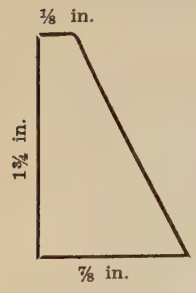
The cards composing this catalogue are kept in drawers, twenty-eight of which occupy the upper part of a case, and are arranged in seven tiers, being placed at such an altitude that the highest drawer is not too high nor the lowest too low to admit of a convenient examination of its contents. Each drawer is about 15¼ inches long, 10⅝ inches wide, and 2¼ inches deep, inside measure, and being divided by a thin partition running lengthwise through the middle, contains two rows of cards. It is prevented from being pulled out accidentally by a wooden button screwed on the inside of the back of each half-drawer, and, when turned up, projecting a little above it. The drawer, on being pulled out, is therefore stopped by the buttons when they reach the horizontal partition in front on which the drawer above it rests; if the buttons are turned down, the drawer may be taken out.

The cases of which these drawers form the upper part are each about 4 feet 3 inches long and 19½ inches wide, and stand on casters. Their height is such that the bottom of the lowest drawer is about 32 inches from the floor, and the top of the highest 54 inches. They are closed at the back, and the space in front below the drawers is left open, to be occupied with books, so that no room is lost. Four of these cases have thus far been made for the use of the Library. Being placed in

pairs, back to back, near the middle of the hall, they together form a structure about 8 feet 6 inches long by 3 feet 3 inches wide, the upper part of which is occupied on one side by the drawers for the Index of Authors, and on the other by those containing the Index of Subjects. Strips of tinned iron are screwed to the margins of the front of each drawer, the upper edge of one strip and the lower edge of the other being folded over, so as to form a sort of frame for the buff-colored pasteboard labels which describe the contents of the two divisions of the drawer, and which cover its whole front, except the portion directly above and below the handle in the middle. The labels, being slipped under the overlapping part of these strips or cleats, are firmly held, but can be withdrawn without difficulty when it is necessary to change them.

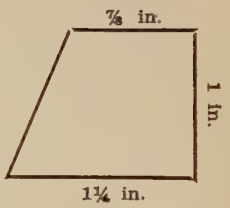
I would now invite the attention of the Committee to certain mechanical appliances which greatly facilitate the examination of the cards, and obviate some objections which may at once suggest themselves to this mode of keeping a catalogue designed for general use. Suppose a drawer half full of cards; how shall these be retained in their proper position, so that they shall not fall down, and so that they may be easily manipulated, always presenting their titles fairly to the eye? This object is effected by two wooden blocks. The first of these is an inch and three-quarters high, seven-eighths of an inch wide at the base, one-eighth of an inch wide at the top, and in length just equal to the width of the half-drawer, in the front of which it is fixed, with its sloping side facing the cards. The second block, an inch and a quarter wide at the bottom, seven-eighths of an inch wide at the top, one inch high, and in length about one-fifth of an inch less than the width of the half-drawer, is placed directly behind the cards, in contact with them, and is prevented from sliding back by a thumb wedge, easily movable, interposed between the right end of the block and the side of the drawer; so that although the drawer may contain only a very few cards, they are kept in their proper place between the two blocks. This block, presenting its oblique side to the cards, gives them a tendency to incline backward in that position which is found to be most convenient when one wishes to examine them in search of a name. Those which have been passed by in the manipulation lean forward, resting on the block in the front of the drawer, so that a wide open-

ing is left at the place of examination, and one can read the title with facility without raising the card from the drawer.



No. 1.—Fixed block in the front of the drawer.

The cards are supposed to stand on their edges between the two blocks, in their normal position leaning against No. 2.



No. 2.—Movable block behind the cards.

But there is another difficulty to be overcome. We have a drawer containing perhaps five hundred cards, forming a mass about seven inches in length, and embracing the titles and references under the names of authors from *Abarbanel* to *Apuleius*. Suppose that I wish to find *Aikin*, or *Ames*, into what part of that mass shall I plunge? This difficulty is relieved by the use of wooden blocks about one-eighth of an inch thick, of the same length as the cards, but a little higher, with the top bevelled at such an angle that when placed among the cards as they stand in their normal position, leaning against the block behind them, it shall present to the eye a level surface. The upper part of each of these blocks is covered with buff-colored envelope paper, smoothly pasted on. On their bevelled edges, thus covered, we write or print Ac, Ad, Ae, Af, Ag, Ai, Ak, Al, Ale, Alm, &c. The blocks so labelled being inserted in their proper places among the cards, perform the same office as the head-lines in a dictionary, enabling a person to find a title in one quarter of the time which would be required without them, and facilitating in an equal degree the distribution of new cards in their proper places among the old. The advantage of the bevelled edge is this, that in whatever position the cards in the drawers may stand, inclining forward or backward, the labels are easily read. A tolerable substitute for these blocks, if the room which they occupy is grudged, may be found in cards about one-fifth of an inch higher than the title-cards in the drawers. On the projecting margin of these the labels are

written, which are very conspicuous when the cards lean backward; when they do not, it is easy to give them that inclination. These projecting cards and blocks also facilitate the manipulation of the title-cards, and partially save them from wear.

This description of the blocks and *guide-boards* (as the thin blocks are termed) may have been tedious, but their utility is so great as to entitle them to special notice. This will be still more apparent when we consider the part which they play in the catalogue of SUBJECTS, to which I would next invite your attention.

CLASSED CATALOGUE, OR "INDEX OF SUBJECTS."

The great advantage of keeping the *alphabetical* catalogue of a rapidly growing library on cards, each containing a separate title, is now generally acknowledged. The catalogue thus admits of indefinite enlargement without that necessity of frequent rewriting or repasting, which must embarrass the attempt to maintain a strictly alphabetical catalogue of such a library in a series of manuscript volumes. What is once done correctly is done forever; and the cards that are written from day to day can be immediately inserted in the drawers, and made available to readers from the very beginning of the work. But I am not aware that the attempt has heretofore been made in any library to provide for all who use it a *classed* catalogue, with numerous subdivisions, kept in the same manner on separate cards, each containing a single title, and so arranged as to enable a person to find with facility all the works in the library that relate to the subject of his inquiry.

A catalogue aiming to accomplish this object for the Library of Harvard College has been carried on simultaneously with the alphabetical catalogue just described; and the titles belonging to each have been freely accessible to the students and others during the past year. This catalogue embraces as yet (that is, to July 10th, 1863) only about 22,000 volumes and 5,000 pamphlets, and even in the portion which has been written the determination of the subdivisions in some of the classes has been postponed, or is merely provisional. No separate printed or written explanation of any part of it has been given. But notwithstanding the disadvantages referred to, and others incident to the novelty of its plan, it has been in constant use during the past year, and has equalled my highest anticipations of its

utility and value. The experiment leaves no room for doubt that the problem proposed may be completely and satisfactorily solved; and it is evident that by the construction of such a catalogue the practical value of the Library will be increased to an extent which can hardly be estimated.

A PLEA FOR THE SUBJECT CATALOG

Part II of the report of the subcommittee on the administration of the library (Harvard College) August 4, 1877, was signed by Justin Winsor, Charles A. Cutter and Charles C. Smith. This is a brief for the classed catalog in use at that time, and it is of general interest, although it was written to answer the question "whether there is a disproportion of usefulness and cost in the catalog of the Central Library (Harvard) as at present constituted." This query is stated to have been received by the Committee to Visit the Library, "from a gentleman eminent in the service of the College." Sketches of Messrs. Cutter and Winsor appear in Volume IV of this series.

Charles Card Smith was born in Boston, March 27, 1827, and attended public and private schools in Gloucester, Mass. He received an honorary A.M. degree from Harvard University in 1887. He was treasurer of the American Unitarian Association from 1862 to 1871; and treasurer of the Massachusetts Historical Society from 1877 to 1907, editing its publications. He died at his home in Boston, March 20, 1918.

The objections to the subject-catalogue resolve themselves into several heads. As regards the cost, the objectors seem to have entirely overlooked the fact that the Library is cataloguing within a few years all the books received for a hundred years. Of course, till this is done, the cost must be disproportioned to the amount expended in the purchase of books. When it is done, the cost will be comparatively small. But the chief point to be considered is that the catalogue, whether of authors or of subjects, is a time-saving, labor-saving device, which a great library with a large circulation, or wishing to acquire a large circulation, can no more dispense with than it can dis-

pense with sufficient shelf-room, with book numbers, or with runners to get the books. If every one who came to a library knew precisely who had written what he wanted, there would be no need for any thing but a list of authors; but, inasmuch as a very large part of book-seekers have not this preliminary information, a title-catalogue and a subject-catalogue have been found indispensable. And on this point all librarians and library attendants are united. The experiment of dispensing with these useful aids has been tried, and with uniform ill-success. It was tried in this Library before Mr. Abbot made his catalogue; and every one who frequented the Library twenty years ago knows how disheartening it was to attempt to follow up any subject, unless one was allowed free entrance to the alcoves. The discontent of professors and students with the author-catalogue of that day was loud-spoken. If we had nothing but that now, the dissatisfaction would be infinitely greater, when there are one-third more books, and ten times as many readers, and therefore ten times as much need of every possible help in the management. For, if the Library furnishes no written guide to its subjects, injuiries will be made of the librarian and attendants; and they, with much cudgelling of brain and turning over of the leaves of antiquated bibliographies and of subject-catalogues of other libraries, and subsequent searching of the author-catalogue to see if the books so discovered belong to this Library, will at last give an incomplete answer to the inquirer. First result: loss of time to the reader, loss of time to the librarian, *which the Library must pay for,* and, after all, only partial satisfaction to both. Ultimate result: the librarian will gradually begin to make a private subject-catalogue, which, however, incomplete and unsatisfactory it may be, he will find in a few months will save him much more time than he had spent in making it.

But it is not solely on the ground of its economy that we advocate the completion of a subject-catalogue. It is not merely because the Library, regarded as a machine, will work more lumberingly and at greater cost without this wheel. It is also—and this is far more important—because the Library, regarded as an educational institution, will often fail of its purpose without this professorship. Students come to the University with every degree of literary culture, taste, and habit of investigation. A few there are that cannot keep out of libraries. They

will come persistently, under whatever circumstances. But far the greater number are more or less averse to trouble, unskilled in the use of a multitude of books, unable to hunt up facts for themselves, ignorant of the pleasure of original investigation. Receive them cordially, make the way easy for them, remove all possible obstacles when they first come, and they will come again: they will be caught by the love of self-acquired knowledge and independent inquiry, and get habits of study and investigation which they will never lose. For such a result, no expense is too great; and such a result a good subject-catalogue may aid in producing year after year. The sum that it costs to secure this permanent assistant, if applied in remunerating the services of the multitude of learned librarians who would be needed to effect the same result, would be quickly spent, whereas the catalogue always remains. So that on the intellectual side of the question, as well as the mechanical, we come round again to the superior economy of the catalogue. The use of bibliographies, which is proposed as a substitute, is too cumbersome; besides, there are none of many subjects, and those that exist are always out of date. The scientist who would recommend the general use of such confounds the wants of the learner and the learned.

The use of specialists to make the different parts of the catalogue is altogether too costly; and, moreover, it renders any uniform system difficult. The advice of specialists should indeed be sought on doubtful points of classification, and the librarian should always be ready to listen to their account of their wants, both in point of books and catalogue; but he, with his full knowledge of the resources of the bibliographic art and of the means at his command, is much more likely to be able to devise adequate methods of meeting their wants than they are themselves. To resort to specialists for advice as to the thousand details of cataloguing would be to seek information on the special point on which they are not likely to have knowledge: to employ them to do the work of the amanuensis is to throw economy to the winds.

For these reasons, we think that the Library must have catalogues of both kinds, by authors and by subjects. The question still remains, however, whether it is well to retain the present mixed subject-catalogue, known as Professor Abbot's, or to convert it into a dictionary catalogue, or into a purely systematic catalogue, on the Amherst or some other plan.

It must be confessed the whole question is one of difficulties, and the highest experience is necessary to make that best which can never become perfect. Persons of practical observation are now mainly agreed that the construction of a purely classed catalogue is a very hazardous affair at a time when the limits of knowledge are rapidly extending, and when the phases of belief in all departments of learning are so mutable. In all ages, the varied idiosyncrasies of minds in their association of ideas have caused a great diversity of systems to be presented, and to be independently acted upon. Consequently, pure classed catalogues without alphabetical indexes have always been, more or less, stumbling-blocks in the paths of all but a few, who by habit or constant use, have engrafted the scheme of the catalogue into their natural processes of thought.

The practical tendency of the time points, we suspect, to the dictionary system (the purely alphabetical combination of authors and subjects, with its use facilitated by cross references) as best adapted to a heterogeneous constituency. This rarely fails to give even a novice the clew that educated persons may search for in vain in the unindexed classified catalogue. Perhaps its best illustrations are the catalogues of the Boston Athenæum and of the Boston Public Library. These catalogues incite investigation, when the others repel it, in the vast majority of users. Nevertheless, it is not to be denied that the classed catalogue to the adept, and to a homogeneous body of users, has in certain respects the advantage. The proficients are, however, few in number comparatively; and, so far as the mission of catalogues is to make readers and students, there can be no question as to the preference to be given on general principles and for strictly popular use. As regards the present catalogue, however, used as it is by professors and students, it seems inexpedient without further trial to make any radical alteration. This is the only specimen of its kind in existence; it is theoretically admirable in its plan; and practically it has already, under many disadvantages, done a great deal toward unlocking the treasures of the Library. Bibliograhpical science and the interests of all libraries demand that this system should have a fair trial. If it then proves worthless, let it be condemned. But, before judgment is passed, let it be tested under favorable conditions. A fair trial it has never had. If it had been provided with proper conveniences from the beginning, it never

would have fallen into its present disfavor, nor have provoked any opposition. What is needed is very simple. First, *large* printed labels on the outside of the drawers. Second, many more guide-cards. Third, a printed explanation of the catalogue, brief, very clear, and very legible. Fourth, and most important, a printed index, giving in one column, in alphabetical order, a list of all possible subjects, except names of persons and places; and in the opposite column the name, or, better still, the number, of the classes under which they are to be found. If this were done, we ought never again to hear the complaint, "I do not know where to look for anything at the College Library." A glance at the index would show the most ignorant or stupid person where to find what he wanted, just as if he were using a dictionary catalogue. It would be in fact a dictionary index to a classed catalogue, and the college would have the advantages of both systems. This index, it will be understood, will be needed chiefly by those who use the catalogue for the first time, by those who use it only occasionally, and by those who use some puzzling part of it for the first time. A large part of the catalogue is so extremely simple, that no one who is willing to learn can fail to understand it after a few consultations; and the attendants at the Library testify that the students quickly become familiar with the use of those parts which they consult most. As is generally the case in cataloguing, this plan requires judgment and care to carry it out. It is not, and from the nature of things cannot be, purely mechanical; but, when it is carried out, it will render the consultation of the catalogue in a great measure mechanical. It will substitute a knowledge of the sequence of numbers for a knowledge of a system of classification as a prerequisite to using the catalogue. The student will no longer feel painfully his ignorance of philosohpical schemes and the relation of the sciences. It will be enough if he has learned the alphabet and the decimal system. There are some difficulties of detail in this, which can be overcome, however, by devices which it is not worth while here to describe.

If, however, it finally appears that the alphabetico-classed system will not answer, and that, even when furnished with all possible facilities, it is clumsy, inconvenient, and unsatisfactory, it will at any time be possible to adopt the dictionary system with very little trouble. To make a dictionary catalogue, one arranges the various subjects of the books in alphabetical order.

To make a catalogue like Professor Abbot's, one groups these subjects under certain classes. To return to the dictionary, it is only necessary to break up these groups. It is therefore a question merely of rearrangement.

No such radical change should be made, unless the necessity for it be demonstrated. Some approach to the dictionary plan may indeed be tried, without giving up the distinctive character of the present system, as was proposed by a member of this Committee in the lately published government report on libraries:—

"I would unite in one alphabet the author and subject catalogue, would retain classification for general subjects, putting the specific under the comprehensive, as at present; but I would disperse individuals through the alphabet. Thus, there would be classes Biography, Geography, History, but the name of a person or place would be found in the main alphabet; there would be a class Zoölogy, under which Horses would appear in their proper place; but an account of any particular Horse, as 'Lady Suffolk' or 'Bucentaur,' would not be there, but under its name; there would be classes Ship-building, Shipwrecks, but the 'Launch of the Great Eastern' or the 'Wreck of the Glide' would appear under 'Glide' and 'Great Eastern.'

"This plan retains most of the advantages of Mr. Abbot's; and yet, by an easily explained exception to his general practice, it relieves the inquirer of the necessity of looking under at least two headings to find whatever concerns a person, and under many more for whatever concerns a place, and also relieves him *from all doubt where to look*. Now, persons and places are the most common objects of inquiry."

That there is much waste in the present separate labors of many libraries, especially in the cataloguing of current books, is undeniable, and it has for years been recognized; and various plans have been suggested for concerted action, but as yet with no practical results. One of the chief objects in the formation of the American Library Association, and of the affiliated bodies soon to be established in Europe, is the solution of this question. Preliminary steps have already been taken. It is evident that no single library can effect this revolution, and it is not unlikely that the cooperation of publishers must be sought. Differences of views and of processes are to be reconciled; and nothing but a tribunal to which publishers as well as librarians will defer can produce a satisfactory result.

There is no question that it is chiefly by a subject-catalogue of some kind that a development of the use made of any library can be effected. To this end, no needful expense is disproportioned, since the prime object of books is to be read. The use of books by the class naturally engrossed with them will take care of itself. The aim of the librarian is to find other users of the same class and to make other classes dependent on books, and his great lever for this purpose is the subject-catalogue. The money spent for the catalogue might buy additional books, and his great lever for this purpose is the subject-catavation to the novice in any department, and to the general student of all departments.

PRINTED CARD CATALOGS

A brief review of experiments in the early use of printed cards reported by Dr. Clement W. Andrews, of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, at the London Conference of 1897.

Clement Walker Andrews was born in Salem, Mass., in 1858. He was educated at the Boston Public Latin School and Harvard University, receiving from the latter an A.B. degree in 1879 and A.M. in 1880. His first library appointment was at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, where he served from 1889 to 1895, and since then he has been librarian of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, a privately endowed library of the sciences. In 1911, he received the degree of LL.D. from Northwestern University.

I am aware, and greatly regret, that my ignorance of the practice of European libraries will make these notes on printed card-catalogues less valuable than they would be if they were prepared by someone of broader experience. Yet I hope that the record of the experiments of a few American libraries in this not unpromising line may be of sufficient interest to justify their presentation.

In the first place, let me say that it is not my intention to compare card-catalogues with other forms of catalogues, nor to treat of points in regard to card-catalogues other than those which are affected directly or indirectly by the use of printed cards, instead of the usual manuscript or typewritten cards. I must pass by, also, the question to what extent printed accession sheets, such as those of the British Museum, the Royal Library at Berlin, and Harvard University, may be considered satisfactory substitutes.

Of American libraries, at least four—the Boston Public, Harvard University, New York Public, and the John Crerar—are now printing all cards added to their catalogues. Many

others, while not doing any printing themselves, still make considerable use of printed cards, either as subscribers to the series published by the Publishing Section of the A.L.A., or to one or another of the various card-indexes which have been started within the last few years. These indexes now cover agriculture, botany, zoology, and mathematics; and there are proposed not only co-operation among certain American libraries, but also the far more extensive plans of the International Bureau at Brussels, and of the Royal Society. Under this development in the use of printed cards, the question has become of much wider interest than if it were simply one of the form of the catalogues of isolated libraries.

Returning, however, to this narrower question, the advantages which may be claimed for the printed over the usual manuscript or typewritten cards may be stated briefly as, greater legibility, greater uniformity, greater care almost necessarily taken in preparation, and the possibility of indefinite multiplication without appreciable increase in cost.

It seems unnecessary to do more than mention the first two points—legibility and uniformity. While they may be inconsiderable if the comparison is made with a catalogue written in the best library style, yet it may be said safely that the very large majority of manuscript catalogues are decidedly inferior in these respects to one printed from clean type of good style. A special weight, it seems to me, may be given to such considerations of external form, in the case of libraries which are intended to be ornaments to the city or memorials of their founders. As to the greater care taken by the cataloguers in the preparation of titles which are to be printed, but little needs to be said. It is by no means inconsiderable; but it can be obtained in other ways, as in the preparation of bulletins or printed book-catalogues.

The last advantage mentioned, however,—that of indefinite multiplication,—is so important as to deserve detailed consideration, and its importance increases very greatly with the number of copies used; for, with printed cards, each additional card costs only the cost of the material, while with manuscript or typewritten cards each one costs just as much as the first.

The vital question, then, it seems to me, is whether the circumstances of a library require or allow it to make use of so

many copies of its catalogue entries as to justify the extra expense of printing them.

It is surprising to find, when the question is approached from this side, in how many ways these extra copies have been or may be utilised.

In the first place, the number of additional entries, especially under subject-headings, may be increased to any extent desired to secure the maximum of usefulness of the catalogues.

In the second place, the entire catalogue, or such parts of it as may be wanted, may be duplicated for consultation in branches or in the departmental libraries of educational institutions. An experiment along this line is being tried in Chicago by the library which I have the honour to represent. A copy of each printed card-catalogue entry of the John Crerar Library is sent to six institutions in the city or its immediate vicinity. These institutions are the Chicago Public Library, the Newberry Library, the University of Chicago, the Northwestern University, Armour Institute of Technology, and the Field Columbian Museum. It will be seen that they are all institutions whose patrons or teachers and students are likely to use the books of the John Crerar Library. The experiment, which was suggested to me by the plan of an Austrian librarian, has not been on trial long enough to allow judgment to be given, but the welcome given these cards by the authorities of the institutions receiving them, and the requests received from other institutions, give us hope that it will prove successful. It should be said that the cards are sent on condition that they are arranged and stored so as to be accessible to the public. They cannot be considered, therefore, as a free gift, but as one entailing on the recipients some little expense for cases and time necessary for arrangement.

Again, this inexpensive multiplication of our catalogue entries has led us to experiment with a triple form of our card catalogue, giving an alphabetical author, an alphabetical subject, and a classed subject arrangement which, together with liberal use of additional entries, also made possible by printed cards, we hope will combine all the advantages obtainable in a card-catalogue. Here also, unfortunately, the experiment has not been in operation long enough to warrant the formation of any judgment as to its success. I am confident of it, however, for I agree with Mr. Peddie and the other speakers yesterday,

that all three forms of catalogues are required before any library can be considered satisfactorily catalogued. The real question, therefore, is that of the correlation of these forms, and of the ways of presenting each form. It offers a wide field for discussion, but especially should it be remembered that what is the best form of author-catalogue may not be the best form of classed or alphabetical subject-catalogue.

Another use of the extra copies has been brought to the front in the past year by the proposal of the American libraries printing their cards to exchange analytical references, each library agreeing to analyse certain sets of serials. It will be seen that the plan is capable of indefinite expansion, and that it can be made to include books and index work, as well as regular analytical work, as needs or opportunities develop.

In addition to these methods of employing the printed cards, there is the possibility of using the type itself, or electrotypes made from it, for the preparation of lists of accessions, bulletins, classed lists, or, as was done by Columbia University in the case of the Avery Architectural Library, even for the printing of a book-catalogue. At the John Crerar Library the type has been electrotyped in a patent form, which allows the titles to be made up into pages in any desired order.

In this connection it may be of interest to refer to the increasing use of celluloid plates as a substitute for electro plates. These *cellutypes,* as they are called, are not only cheaper and much lighter than electro plates, but they are also more durable and less easily damaged. It is not impossible that they will lead to a revival of Mr. Jewett's plan for a central cataloguing bureau which shall furnish material from which each library can print its own catalogue at a minimum expense.

There are, of course, some disadvantages to be set against these many advantages. Here, again, let me remind you that this paper will not deal with those disadvantages which belong to the card system as a system, but only with those which pertain to the printed card in comparison with the manuscript one.

Of these there are two which appear to merit serious consideration, namely, the extra delay in making books available to the public, and second, the increased cost. The time required for the actual printing of the cards can be reduced so as to make any objection on this score untenable. It is rather the extra time needed to complete the title bibliographically, or

to perfect the volume or set if any defects are found, or to secure information which could be added afterwards to the written card, that will cause most dissatisfaction with the printing process. It is possible, however, to minimise this, for example, by the use of temporary MS. entries, or by the exposure of new books uncatalogued.

The great and, in many cases, decisive objection is the increased cost. Considerable as this is, it easily may be overestimated, for, as has been said before, it diminishes very rapidly as the number of copies used increases, and may in some cases, therefore, prove to be a positive economy. Still, it is so fundamental a point that it will appear worthy of detailed consideration, even though the details apply only to conditions as they exist in the United States.

The figures which have been given me by the librarians in question are as follows:—

		Per title
Harvard	8 copies	20 cents
Boston	6 "	5-10 "
New York	2 "	12 "
J.C.L.	20 "	16 "
A.L.A.	3 "	2½ "

The great variations in these figures is caused by the different conditions under which the work is done. Harvard University prints its cards on the college press, and the cost is raised by the fact that a large plant has to be kept ready for occasional heavy demands. The cards of the A.L.A., New York Public Library, and the John Crerar Library are printed by outside printers on a commercial basis, and include all expenses and a fair profit to the printers. Those of the New York Public Library and the John Crerar Library are in very close agreement, and probably represent the minimum attainable in the United States on this basis. The figures furnished by the Boston Public Library are the most interesting as showing what may be looked for under favourable circumstances. Their work is done in the library by library employees, on Mergenthaler linotype machines. By omitting all charges for rent, light, heat, and power, and by supposing that the library can keep two machines constantly at work, there is obtained the lower limit of cost quoted, namely, 5 cents per title. The upper limit, 10 cents, would allow for these omissions and for a much less

constant use of the machines. The figures of the American Library Association are interesting as showing the advantages of co-operation.

There is one other element in the additional cost of printed cards, which has been alluded to already, namely, the greater time and care required in their preparation. It is evident that there is a distinct loss of time inevitable when work is done piecemeal, as is necessary to secure prompt current cataloguing, instead of in the better co-ordinated work of revision or of preparation of bulletin material.

On the other hand, in considering the question of cost, it must not be forgotten that, apart from the saving of the time of the library assistants, caused by the many cross-references and analytical cards, there is the positive financial economy where many copies are used, and that this economy often can be obtained by reducing the number of titles. For example, a single card with contents note for a book consisting of a series of articles will give a much cheaper means of analysis than the usual series of analytical cards. Again, the variations of title and editor in the case of any periodical sets can be given more clearly and intelligibly in a single title, which is entered in the card-catalogue as often as is necessary, than on a series of MS. cards, each of which can contain information in regard to a fraction of the set.

A final consideration deserves mention, as it is apt to be passed over in the discussion of the cost of our catalogues. It should not be forgotten that the main cost is in the preparation of the titles, not in their reproduction. Assuming, as I believe is done in the United States, that the preparation of titles will cost, if well done, from 25 to 35 cents each, then the 5 cents paid by the Boston Public Library to put these titles in the most useful and beautiful form cannot but be considered as proportionally a very small matter, while even the highest price paid for the same work is not excessive.

I shall be content if these notes have convinced you that the subject is one having a practical bearing on several lines of library work, and that it is worthy of serious consideration under certain conditions.

I cannot close, however, without expressing my cordial agreement with the remarks of Mr. Lane on the first paper of the Conference, that the real use of these practical methods

is to so economise the time of librarian, assistants, and readers, that all may do more work with less drudgery, and my hope that they may succeed in so doing.

THE PROGRESS OF THE MODERN CARD CATALOG PRINCIPLE

A paper read by Miss M. S. R. James at the Buffalo meeting of the New York Federation of Women's clubs, October 8, 1901. The author describes the early use of cards in France, England and Ireland, the sheaf system, the Rudolf indexer, the evolution of the modern card catalog and the application of the principle of the latter to business uses.

Minnie Stewart Rhodes James was born in Devonshire, England. For many years she served as librarian of the People's Palace, London, founded by Walter Besant. In 1893, she came to this country to attend the Columbian Exposition, Chicago, and to explain the plans of the Palace and the work of the Palace library. In 1895, she returned to the United States, accepted a position with the Library Bureau and remained with that firm until her death in 1903.

It is almost impossible to write about the card catalog system without making use of language employed in its description by others, so much has been written and spoken concerning it.

The principle of the card catalog needs no explanation, it is too well and widely known.

Its essential feature is that it admits of indefinite intercalation (Library notes, 2, 3:28).

It is the crux of library management, the central point of library construction (Library journal, 17:229.)

A catalog on cards is universally recognized as the only one which can be kept up to date, and therefore is indispensable (Public Libraries, 4: 262).

The actual origin of the card catalog is, like many another origin, shrouded in obscurity, which is not so much to be re-

gretted, as it is what it now is and does, compared with what it once was and did, that makes it of supreme value in work of all kinds and records of all sorts.

It affords infinite possibilities of application.

Probably the card catalog in its crude form can be traced back to the era of playing cards, certainly it cannot properly be claimed as an American or English invention; obviously in making indexes slips must have been used, and the value of uniformity must have occurred to their compilers.

At any rate we know that cards were in use in the Bibliothèque Nationale Paris at an early date, and we find the Abbé Rozier of the Paris Académie des Sciences suggesting and describing the use of playing cards in 1775 for a general index to the publications of that society, from 1660-1775, on page 9 of the preface to the first volume (Prosser, origin of the card catalog. L.A. record, 2:657, Dec., 1900), though he did not consider them as anything but temporary expedients.

We have reason to believe that the genesis of the card catalog should be ascribed to France, in which country, as far back as 1627, Gabriel Naudé and Cardinal Mazarin were contemplating the establishment of a free public library.

The idea of using cards once conceived, it was natural and inevitable that in course of time modifications and improvements should appear, making the card catalog system increasingly practical and valuable.

It has been customary to consider America as the pioneer of the card catalog, but this is not correct. Americans realized its vital principle and American inventive ingenuity promptly improved and perfected its details to such an extent, that the relationship between the old and the new form is hardly recognizable. Having once realized its value practical business men at once proceeded to apply it with increasing success to every form of record and every kind of business and profession.

Its modern progressive history is bound up in the annals of the American Library Association and those of the Library Bureau of Boston, which last was for over 15 years the only commercial concern to devote itself exclusively to the manufacture of cards, guides, and cabinets, systematizing, experimenting, improving, and perfecting the card catalog in all its details, with other library appliances.

Its efforts were indorsed by the American Library Associ-

ation, and are generally conceded to have been largely instrumental in bringing about approximate uniformity in the administration and equipment of American libraries.

Ignoring the catalogs of the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Académie des Sciences in Paris, the first modern card catalog in actual use appears to have been that of Sir Francis Ronalds in 1820, which was used in the library of the Society of telegraph engineers in London.

Card catalogs, we are told by Prof. E. P. Wright, were rather the rule than the exception in Irish Libraries, and one had been in use in the library of Trinity college, Dublin, from 1827. The British museum library also had used slips measuring 10x4 inches for their working catalog, which was stored in alphabetical boxes and used by the staff only.

Between 1853 and 1855 Prof. C. C. Jewett, the eminent American librarian, adopted the card catalog and used it in the Boston Public library, of which he was appointed superintendent in 1857 (Boston P. L. Hdbk, 1883), the size of the card he used was 15x20 cm.

Dr Ezra Abbott planned and began an alphabetico-classed catalog on cards in Harvard college library in 1856, using cards punched at the lower left corner, through which a rod penetrated from back to front of the case. He was one of the first to give references to contents and parts of books.

Boston Public library inaugurated the first printed card catalog for public use in October, 1871, (Boston P. L. Hdbk., 1883), which was placed in Bates Hall and has been kept up to date ever since. The unpunched cards were filed in drawers over which two large rods were placed to safeguard their contents, which scheme for their protection did not prove wholly efficacious.

1853 may be said to be the nascent period of the modern library movement. It was then that a band of American librarians met together in New York city, at the instigation of Prof. C. C. Jewett, to consider library matters. In 1876 another meeting was held in Philadelphia as a result of the first conference, and there was organized the body now universally known and respected as the A. L. A. 1877 saw an international conference of librarians in London and the formation of a similar body in Great Britain known as the Library association of the United Kingdom.

At the Philadelphia meeting of the A. L. A., a committee was formed to collect models of library appliances, and its secretary, Mr Dewey, to whom the library world owes so much, undertook to manufacture the special library supplies recommended by the committee. Much of the commercial success of America is due to her having adopted standard sizes in manufacturing. To Mr Dewey the A. L. A. and the Library Bureau belongs the "kudos" of obtaining and maintaining uniformity in card catalog requisites, which has made the application of the card catalog principle to other kinds of work than library catalogs so successful and indispensable.

After the use of cards had become general, the next obvious consideration was the question of the best size of card to adopt, with due care in economizing space, the consumption of which has been the chief objection urged against the card catalog.

The British museum cards were 10x4 inches, the Jewett cards 15x20cm., the Crookes card 10cm.x7.5cm., those of the bibliographical committee of the Scientific club of Vienna were 14x3.5cm., and the cards used in the Konigsberg library 19.5x15cm., not to mention others.

After mature deliberation the A. L. A. adopted the 7.5cm. by 12.5cm. card, which is punched in the center of the lower edge. This size is now the library standard, and this form was strongly advocated by Mr Dewey, who was the first to realize the vital necessity of uniformity in this respect. It is now accepted as an international standard for all bibliographical work, and the U. S. A. Postal department recently printed 10,000,000 postal cards of this size.

After the size of the cards, the next consideration was the best form of case. The first cases were as crude in appearance as the old form of the card catalog itself, and consisted of two drawers for two rows of cards.

It was then apparent that the cards must be protected from disarrangement. The first cards used were not punched, but rods were placed over the top of the drawer. The next method was to punch the cards in the lower left corners, through which a metal rod was run from back to front of the drawer. Eventually the cards were punched in the center of the lower edge, and rods were run through these holes from the front of the drawer to the back. Then angle blocks were added, against

which the cards rested, making them easier to read, and outside label-holders and labels were introduced to indicate the contents of each drawer.

Finally, when the catalog increased in bulk, it was found expedient to facilitate reference by inserting at regular intervals guides or projections of ¼ inch above the tops of the cards, on which headings could be written to point consulters to the exact location of the cards required. At first these were made of zinc, with paper pasted on the tops, which were slightly bent over, or the headings were written on the zinc itself in platinic chloride ink, or the guides were enameled and the headings painted on the enamel. Nowadays, strong, well-cut bristol-board is used, on which headings can be written or printed, and sometimes celluloid is laid over the headings to keep them clean and preserve them from wear.

Every judiciously inserted guide increases the value of a card-list, index, catalog, or record, and prolongs its usefulness.

In practical use it was found that in drawer cases the drawers could not be pulled out to their full extent with safety, so a duplex slide was added to overcome this difficulty, and then it having become evident that one person in a library consumed too much space in consulting the card catalog in drawer cabinets, single trays were devised to hold one row of cards, and these are now considered the ideal receptacles for cards.

One detail after another was considered and received careful attention as the various requirements became known, and constant experiment and care have produced the finely-finished, convenient card cabinets of the present day, which are recognized standards, and are closely imitated by the latter day competitors of the Library Bureau.

The universally awakened interest in library work apparently stimulated the invention of improved library appliances, or it may have been "unconscious celebration," for we find from 1866 onward records of numerous forms of card catalogs both in Europe and America, all of which are interesting, some practical, and others most eccentric. To enumerate all those invented would take too much time. Those sufficiently interested will find valuable the contributions of J. D. Brown in the Library, 6: 44-66, 1884, and 3: 393, 394, 1891, and Giulia Sacconi-Ricci in the Library journal, 18: 423-427, 1893, and the chapter on alphabetic catalogs in Laudé's Manual de bibliothèconomie, pp. 232-266, the French translation of Dr Arnim Graesel's book.

The various forms of these card catalog inventions have been described as the card, the sheaf, and the panoramic systems.

The card systems are those in which the cards are filed on edge in drawers, trays, or boxes, such as the well-known Library Bureau card systems, that of the École des Langues, Paris, the Bonange, Staderini, Halle, and Giessen universities.

The sheaf systems include the models of catalog slips in book form, such as those of the Leyden university, the Sacconi, the Torboss, the Brown, etc., to which we must add the many recent forms of loose leaf binders and files now in the market, and all worked by the same principle.

The panoramic or churn systems are demonstrated in the rather unpractical and space-consuming inventions of Thomas Mason of London, 1891, the Rudolph indexer of San Francisco, 1893, the Borgeaud's meuble a fiches articulées, consisting of cylinders on which the titles of the books revolve and come into view by turning a crank.

One of the most curious of all catalog models of which we have come across, is that of the Sacramento Public library, which consists of express tags strung on wires, one tag to each book, arranged alphabetically by subjects, combining the functions of indicator and shelf list; the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 are marked on the tag, and when the book is in the even numbers are punched, and when out, the odd ones.

Mr Linderfeldt had a scheme by which, in order to save space, both sides of the cards were written on and both ends of the drawers containing them were pulled out of the cabinet on both sides.

The advent and universal acceptance of the standard size card, 7.5cm. x 12.5cm., brought forward the cherished scheme of coöperative cataloging by means of printed cards issued from a central bureau.

Several ineffectual attempts had been made to catalog current literature without success. The most notable were those of the Title and Slip registry in 1879, which failed for want of support; another by the Publishers' weekly in 1887, which received only 20 subscriptions, and one projected by Messrs Borden and Stetson of the New Haven Public library, which was abandoned in 1893, when the Rudolph indexer and the Library Bureau schemes were put on foot.

The only successful and permanent attempt at issuing printed catalog cards of current books was begun by the Library Bureau in 1893 and carried on till 1896, when the scheme was turned over to the Publishing board of the A. L. A., which has continued to issue these printed standard size cards to the present year, discontinuing their publication only because of the improved scheme of the Library of Congress, which has now undertaken this important matter.

Publishers have been besought at intervals to issue printed catalog slips and cards of standard size in advance of their publications, and some have made more or less desultory response, notably, Harper and Macmillan of New York, and Archibald Constable of London, with others.

Several of the learned societies are issuing printed cards and slips with their publications and proceedings, but it is a moot question whether the average publisher is the best cataloger of his productions.

One curious attempt of the "tabloid news" kind is instanced in Card Notes current: medical series, of Dr Charles Everett Warren of Boston. It consisted of a series of standard size cards on which were printed medical subject headings, under which were set out in different type condensed descriptions of each subject.

Cards at first only used for card catalogs in libraries are now found indispensable for all departments of library work, and are used for shelf lists, withdrawal lists, order lists, indexes, borrowers' registers, charging systems, notes, memoranda, and periodical and newspaper check lists. The cards themselves have been made increasingly valuable by the patented addition of tabs or projections on each card in various positions, which make it feasible to classify or subdivide minutely in a manner hitherto impossible.

The application of the card catalog principle to business uses may be said to have commenced in England in the bank of England in 1852, and in its modern successful form in America about the year 1884. The president of the Williamsburg Savings bank of New York city saw the card catalog in Columbia, and immediately realized its possibilities as an index to depositors, to which purpose he promptly applied it. Banks of all kinds adopted it, followed closely by fire and life insurance companies, trust and safe deposit companies, and progressive

business and professional men began to acknowledge its advantages for every kind of commercial and professional record. One mail order house is at present using over 2,500,000 cards!

Card ledgers are superseding book ledgers and revolutionizing bookkeeping, and the card principle has recently been applied advantageously to the filing of letters, papers, catalogs, pamphlets, scraps, photos, etc., and all loose matter that requires to be kept for reference and is usually such an embarrassment. It is used in all up-to-date business concerns, in libraries, by private individuals and professional men.

Indeed, the card system in its modern business aspects is one of the greatest labor-savers and indispensable improvements of the present time, as has been abundantly testified by electric, gas, water, telephone, railroad companies, factories, and other users.

Its recent developments have been of immense value, and its future possibilities of application are still unlimited. The principle is so adaptable that it will practically meet any demand; but, like other systems, "much of its success depends on the quality of the appliances used" (Library architecture, p. 89, Library series), and the value of each system depends on its perfection of detail and accurate installation to a very great degree.

"Imitation is the sincerest flattery;" it is always more or less easy to copy, and that the Library Bureau card outfits are recognized as standard by imitators is a further tribute to their substantial success, for "things done well and with a care exempt themselves from fear. Things done without example in them are to be feared."

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINTED CARD CATALOG CARDS BY THE NATIONAL LIBRARY

Mr. L. Stanley Jast, chief librarian of the public libraries of Manchester, England, once said, "If the librarian is to do, and do well, even a part of the things which various people at the dawn of the twentieth century are telling him he should do, it behooves him to look about and ask himself not so much what work he can retain but what he can rid himself of, by availing himself of the most powerful engine in the affairs of this modern world—cooperation."

Cooperative cataloging was broached first by Professor Jewett, librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, at the first convention of American librarians in 1853. He had in mind, however, the preparation of a printed catalog. (See pages 299-306.)

In the Handbook of Card Distribution, printed by the Library of Congress in 1921, Mr. C. H. Hastings, chief of the Card Division, says that the printing and storing of cards was begun in 1898, and that the work of distribution was begun in 1901.

In the following article, written by Dr. Herbert Putnam, librarian of Congress, the plan of cooperation and distribution is treated fully. A biographical sketch of Dr. Putnam appeared in Volume III of this series.

The Library of Congress is now issuing copies of its printed catalogue cards to other libraries subscribing the cost of these extra copies. What this may mean will be more obvious from a consideration of the conditions heretofore.

Practically all American libraries to-day have card catalogues. In these every book appears under its author, under the subjects of which it treats, and sometimes under its title,

if the title differs from the subject. Some books have to appear in perhaps only two places, others in forty or fifty, where there are many authors and many subjects treated by them. On an average, a book appears in from three to five different places. The cards that libraries have used were in the first instance written; then they were typewritten, and in recent years they have in some libraries come to be printed. Printing is possible, of course, only for the larger libraries, which are handling a large number of books and making elaborate catalogues; the New York Public Library prints, the Boston Public Library, the Harvard College Library, the John Crerar Library of Chicago, the Carnegie Library at Pittsburgh.

The Library of Congress has for some time been printing. It has now within its walls a fully equipped printing plant, a branch of the Government Printing-Office.

The cost of getting any particular book into the card catalogue is far greater than the public has any notion of. There are various elements of cost. There is the work of the cataloguer, who is an expert; then there is the work of the transcriber, if copies of the card are multiplied by transcription or by typewriter. If the library prints, there is the cost of composition and presswork. The stock would cost the same whether the titles are transcribed or printed. But the two most costly factors are the work of the cataloguer, the expert, and the work of the compositor or transcriber. It has been estimated that, on the average, the total cost of getting a single book into a library catalogue is from twenty-five to thirty-five cents. Not a single volume, of course. A book may be in a hundred volumes and yet represent only one title to be handled; it may be in one volume and represent twenty subjects to be handled; but, on the average, the cost is from twenty-five to thirty-five cents for each book, or what the librarians refer to as a "title."

Now, there are hundreds of libraries containing thousands of the same books—identical in author, title, and contents, and subject to the same processes. But thus far each library has been doing individually the whole work of cataloguing the copies received by it, putting out the whole expense. Forty years ago Professor Jewett, then librarian of the Smithsonian Institution, conceived the notion of a central bureau which might attend to these processes, or the most expensive part

of them, once for all, and make available its results to the libraries receiving identical material; but the project never came to anything.

There have been distributions of printed cards on a small scale or covering special subjects. The American Library Association (not as a scheme for profit, since it is not a commercial body, but merely as a measure of professional co-operation) has issued cards indexing certain scientific serials and even cards cataloguing certain current books. But the Association has no library nor any corps of expert cataloguers. For the material to be catalogued it had to depend upon voluntary gift or loan from the publishers. The cards issued did not cover enough titles to interest a large library; they covered too many to interest a small one. Yet a subscription had to be required for the entire series.

Since the Library of Congress moved into the new building, expectation has turned to it. It has already the largest collection of books on the western hemisphere; it is increasing more rapidly than any other single collection. It receives without cost two copies of every book entered for copyright in the United States. It receives these on or before the date of publication, and thus in advance of any other library. It receives an enormous mass of material through exchange. And it is buying a mass of other books, current and non-current, which includes a large portion of material in current acquisition by the other libraries of the United States. It is classifying and cataloguing this material on its own account. It is printing the results in the form of cards. It is reclassifying and recataloguing its existing collection (excluding duplicates, over 750,000 books and pamphlets), and is printing these results also on cards. What the Library prints is an author card. But in certain departments of literature it prints by way of memorandum on this card the subject-headings that it will use on the copies destined for subject cards. It will ultimately do this on all the cards issued. The cost to it of the first author card, including the work of the cataloguer, is doubtless over thirty cents for each book. But a second copy of the card can be run off for a fraction of a cent.

It offers now to supply to any subscribing library one or more copies of any card which it prints. The subscription price will be based on the cost of producing the extra copies

so supplied plus ten per cent., this being the basis of the statutory charge for extra copies of any Government publication furnished by the Public Printer.

A provisional price has been adopted of two cents for the first copy of any card and of half a cent for each additional copy. The total cost of the five copies requisite to cover the average book would, therefore, be four cents. For this sum the library secures the catalogue entry under the author, and in certain cases—ultimately in every case—a suggestion of the subject entries; and in addition the composition, presswork, and card stock. In so far as the cards represent books reclassified, the subscribing library will secure also an indication of the location of the book in the scheme of classification in use at the Library of Congress, the class and book number being inserted upon the card. In the case of copyrighted books the card indicates the date of copyright.

There are many obvious conveniences and possible economies in this distribution, but there are many difficulties of detail; and to any centralization of such work there are certain obstacles which have heretofore been regarded as fundamental:

1. Libraries are not uniformly using the same size of card. In the public libraries of the United States there are in use nearly a score of variant sizes. There are, however, two sizes which have been recognized by the American Library Association as "standard." One of these is five inches in length by three in height; the other five in length by two in height. The one or the other of these sizes is now adopted as of course in any library newly established, and is now in use in a majority of the important libraries in the United States. Certain libraries (as the Boston Public Library) which have heretofore used a variant size are endeavoring to arrange the text upon it so that their cards may ultimately be trimmed to the "standard" size.

The Library of Congress cards are of the standard three-by-five size called "postal size." The entry is so arranged upon them that in a majority of cases a library using the two-by-five, or "index size," may trim the card to this without the loss of any of the text essential to the permanent service of the card.

2. Libraries have not been in agreement as to the form of entry. During the past two years, however, the form of entry

has been under discussion by a committee of the American Library Association, and agreement has been reached upon all substantial points. The cards issued will conform to this agreement.

3. (*a*) The cards would be expected to cover the current accessions of libraries rather than their existing collections, which are presumably for the most part already catalogued. But the current accessions of libraries differ very greatly with the size and character of the library, its existing collections, and its funds for increase. Four-fifths of the purchases of an ordinary popular library will probably be of current publications; four-fifths of the purchases of a library such as the library of Columbia University may be of books non-current. Cards for current publications will be of relatively slight concern to libraries of the latter type.

(b) Even the libraries of the same purpose and ultimate scope are by no means all acquiring the same books at the same time.

It is obvious, therefore, that if the cards distributed are to interest equally the library for the general reader and the library for the specialist, the public library and the academic library, the circulating library and the reference library, the library which is just beginning and the library which has already a large collection accumulated—if cards are to interest all these they must cover a very wide area of literature. The Library of Congress is now printing cards at the rate of about two hundred and twenty-five titles a day—over sixty-five thousand titles a year. The area which these will certainly cover is this:

(a) All publications, American and foreign, currently entered for copyright in the United States.

(*b*) Ultimately—*i. e.*, within the next five years—every book in its existing collection. This collection includes now in itself 750,000 volumes, among these the major portion of the issues of the American press since 1870 and a large representation of the issues prior to that date. It includes also a very considerable representation of the literature of American history, political and social science, and various other departments of literature. With appropriations for increase amounting now to $60,000 a year, gaps are being rapidly filled, so that within the near future the more important standard books in every department of literature are likely to be here.

(*c*) Its purchases of current publications will include those obviously requisite to a library general in scope.

(*d*) Besides the Library of Congress, the Government supports at Washington libraries in each of the Federal departments and scientific bureaus. There are over a dozen of these, which, in the aggregate, include upwards of a million volumes. These are likely to be in co-operative relation with the Library of Congress as regards the selection of their books, processes of cataloguing, and the printing of the catalogue cards. It seems very probable that cards for the current accessions of each of these Federal libraries may be brought into the scheme. They will include highly specialized material, particularly in the natural and physical sciences and in mathematics.

(e) The Library of Congress is now arranging to receive advance information of the purchases proposed by each one of the half-dozen leading American libraries, including the New York Public, the Boston Public, the John Crerar, the Carnegie of Pittsburgh, and some university libraries, including that of Harvard. This information will probably reach it at the time the order for the books is placed; in the form, in fact, of a duplicate of the order lists. These lists are likely to influence its own selections for purchase. Any book upon them, current or non-current, which will be obviously within its scope, will be likely to be purchased by it immediately, in order to bring its title within the scheme of co-operative cataloguing. There will be certain titles either not within its proper scope or not within its immediate means. Such books will not be catalogued at the Library of Congress; but it is not impossible that, when catalogued by the recipient library, the catalogue entries may be printed at the Library of Congress and the resultant cards brought into the scheme of distribution.

The aggregate accessions of the seven or eight libraries that would thus be co-operating would probably cover four-fifths of the important accessions of all the libraries in the United States to-day not covered by the groups of cards represented in *a*, *b*, and *c* above.

The purpose of the Library of Congress in printing the entries compiled by other libraries of books not in its own collection would be, not primarily to convenience the library doing the work of cataloguing, but to convenience every library receiving or likely to receive those same books: and in addition

also to secure copies of the cards for its own card catalogue of important American collections outside of Washington. It has in process such a catalogue. It is already receiving for it a copy of every card printed by the libraries mentioned above as now printing cards, and it hopes to receive written or typewritten transcripts of cards representing significant books in other distinctive collections. The resultant catalogue will enable it to enlarge its service to investigators as a bureau of information upon all matters bibliographic. It is already such a bureau for the United States. It needs to be able to advise the inquirer, not merely what literature exists upon a given subject, but where most conveniently accessible to him the particular books which he requires may be found.

With the libraries already printing cards the Library of Congress is thus already in a relation of exchange, sending one copy of every card which it prints in return for those which it receives. It expects thus to place, in a depositary library in each center of research in the United States, a full statement of what it itself contains. An investigator in any such city, failing to find in that city a book needed for his subject of research, may then ascertain whether it is in the National library; and, if it proves to be, may possibly, through the intervention of the local library, obtain the use of it under the system of inter-library loan; or, if it be a book which cannot be lent, may determine whether or not a visit to Washington would be justified for the purpose of consulting it.

The Library of Congress will, of course, supply to each Federal library at Washington a copy of every card which it prints representing material of interest to that library. It will seek to secure in return information as to the contents of that library.

4. The cataloguing work of the Library of Congress will not be accepted by other libraries unless it is in the highest degree thorough and bibliographically accurate. The necessary qualifications to secure these results are already represented in the cataloguing force of the Library of Congress. The number of persons possessing them needs only to be multiplied.

5. The cards must reach the other libraries promptly after the receipt by them of the books themselves; and in the case of a new publication, this means promptly after the book is put upon the market. This requirement can be met only by

a considerable force both in the cataloguing department and in the printing-office at the Library, and well-organized facilities for distribution of the cards. There are now sixty-seven persons in the catalogue department. By next July, if the estimates submitted are adopted by Congress, there will be ninety-one persons. This number was not planned with any special reference to the distribution of the cards, that distribution being rendered possible by the multiplication of the results by mechanical processes. But the force of ninety-one persons is the minimum requisite to handle the regular current accessions of the Library and to attend, with reasonable rapidity, to the arrears of work upon the existing collection. The arrears alone—reclassification of the collection, the compilation of subject cards, and the revision and printing of the author cards, with the necessary subsidiary processes—would of itself occupy the entire such force for five years. But in all the work the current accessions, in particular those of interest to other libraries, will be given precedence. The cards for copyrighted publications can, in ordinary course, reach a subscribing library within ten days of the entry for copyright.

The Library of Congress has now, besides a fully equipped bindery (with forty-eight persons), a printing plant with a present force of nineteen persons. These are both within the Library building and exclusively devoted to the work of the Library. They are, however, branches of the Government Printing-Office, and may at any time be enlarged by requisition upon that office, whose facilities, of course, are practically indefinite. The work done is charged to the allotment of the Library for printing and binding. The subscriptions received for cards are covered into the Treasury, ultimately to be credited back to that allotment.

6. How are subscribing libraries to know what cards are being printed by the Library of Congress, and how are they to designate the cards which they desire?

(*a*) The current copyrighted books are listed in a publication compiled by the Library of Congress and issued by the Treasury Department, called "The Weekly Catalogue of Title Entries." This may be secured by any library at the cost of $5 per year and used as a check-list and order-list. "The Publishers' Weekly" gives most of the copyrighted books and many other current publications. This may be checked and forwarded as an order-list.

(*b*) The cards are printed on large sheets, forty titles to a sheet, and cut up afterwards. Before these are printed on the card stock, there are run off a number of sets of the titles on proof paper. These are cut into strips of about the "galley" size.

Now these strips, fifteen or twenty sets of which are run off each day, are a comprehensive and absolutely precise statement of the cards which the Library of Congress is printing for that day, and in the aggregate cover completely the output for any given period. These strips are mailed each day to a number of the libraries which are most largely interested in the distribution. Each title upon them has a number in a "printer's series," as "1-16630;" that is, the card number 16630 of the series of 1901. The library desiring a card for that title has merely to designate it by that number. The libraries receiving the proof, therefore, or desiring further copies of a card already in their possession, can secure them by quoting merely this number in the printer's series.

The distribution is already in process. The first few months will necessarily be a period of experiment. New difficulties of detail will doubtless be encountered, and there will be delays in the distribution, due to contingencies which could not be foreseen in the theoretic plan, and to the difficulty of providing in advance an organization for a work whose scope can be determined only by experiment. There are already, however, nearly one hundred libraries actively subscribing for cards, and among these some of the libraries having large current accessions. In part the applications have been for cards in stock, covering publications or accessions of the past two years. As time goes on the stock on hand is, of course, likely to cover the standard books which form the basis of any ordinary library. There will be represented in it, for instance, every title in the American Library Association's list of five thousand best books for a model library. A new Carnegie library, forming upon a Carnegie foundation or otherwise, very commonly adopts such a list as a basis of its first selections. It is probable that an author catalogue for the entire collection with which it starts its career will be procurable from the Library of Congress. The subject cards will, of course, have to be made at the recipient library; but in course of time the appropriate subject-entries for them will be given on all the

author cards, so that the work of making the subject cards will be merely clerical.

The classification of the book will still have to be determined in the particular library. The system of classification in use at the Library of Congress is specially devised by it for its own convenience. It is not assumed to be a system universally applicable. But the scheme of classification will be in print and will be procurable by any library which procures the cards. The class mark upon the card will indicate in what class and sub-class the book is located in the Library of Congress. It is a symbol. By reference to the printed scheme the division of literature to which it refers can be ascertained. The class mark for this division in the scheme in use in the recipient library can then be substitued; all with a labor far less than the labor and the skill requisite to the classification of the book *ab initio.*

THE FUTURE OF THE CATALOG

Mr. William I. Fletcher of Amherst College here makes a plea for the compilation and use of bibliographies, as a substitute for the subject catalog. His proposal is that references be made in the card catalog to special bibliographies and reading-lists. The plan, though adopted to a certain extent, has by no means done away with subject entries. A sketch of Mr. Fletcher is printed in Volume II of this series.

Several years ago I wrote a paper for one of the meetings of the American Library Association on "Library superstitions." I am now inclined to add to those I then named, another—the Dictionary Catalog. I do not intend by this expression to intimate that the dictionary catalog is a thing to be disbelieved in and rejected, but rather to suggest that it has the character of a superstition in so far as it is accepted and religiously carried out on grounds that are traditional, rather than on any intelligent conviction that it meets present needs and is good for the future needs for which we must make provision.

Two enormous changes have occurred in the library world since the dictionary catalog secured by virtue of its adaptation to things as they then were its commanding pre-eminence among catalog forms. One of these changes is in the size of our libraries, and the consequent extent and complexity of their catalogs. The other is in methods of administration and in the temper in which the relation of a library to its patrons is conceived.

In what I have to say on this subject I shall have mainly in mind, and use terms applicable to, the card catalog. But before proceeding I wish to say that I have no such exclusive reference to the card catalog as might thus appear. I shall speak of the catalog as existing in two divisions, author and subject; I shall undoubtedly be affected in my use of terms and my general treatment of the subject by the fact that I have for many

years been working with a catalog actually so divided. So far as I know this separation is not at all common. Its best exemplification is probably the very extensive catalog of Harvard University Library. At Amherst we have come to believe in it as best, at any rate for us, and I shall later make much clearer than I could do now wherein its advantages lie. But I do not consider this question of separation or combination of the two parts or elements as of much consequence, and most of what I say should be understood to be applicable to the straight dictionary form, *i.e.,* all entries in one alphabetical order, as well as to the divided arrangement.

Before proceeding, however, I would like to touch on two minor points. First, as to the term "dictionary catalog." I wish some one would make the necessary thoroughgoing research to determine when and in what connection its use began. I had supposed, in common probably with most librarians, that it was a modern term, connoting especially the kind of catalog in which entries of different kinds are arranged in one alphabetical series, so that they are to be looked for like words in a dictionary. So understood we could not properly speak of a dictionary subject-catalog. But I was led to change my view of the matter when I bought at auction a few years ago a catalog printed in 1745 of the Inner Temple Library of London, and found that while it is simply an author-catalog, the Latin title-page makes prominent the statement that the entries are arranged "in the order of a dictionary." This leads me to conclude that the term historically and legitimately signifies alphabetical arrangement merely, whether of author or subject catalog, or of both together, as against a classified or logical (*raisonné*) arrangement.

The other minor point is this. Our catalog is the only one I know having the two sections—author and subject—in which title entries are placed with the subjects and not with the authors. In practice this seems to me much the most satisfactory arrangement. Of course, the *prima facie* argument for putting the title entries with the authors is that it secures a place for anonymous books in the author-catalog, which would otherwise be incomplete. This is purely a theoretical or academic reason for such inclusion. The prevailing reason on the other side is the thoroughly practical one that the average library patron does not readily distinguish between subject and

title. So we have on one hand the author-catalog and on the other the subject-and-title catalog, and find this in practice a most satisfactory arrangement.

Proceeding now to consider the catalog as a problem of the dawning future. I suppose we shall all agree that its leading feature must be, as it has been, a straightaway alphabetical arrangement under authors. I only wish to emphasize this as an undoubted truth. Whatever else may be questioned this will not be. No matter how extensive the catalog may come to be, each author's name will find its appropriate place, and every person of experience as librarian or library user will agree that this must be always our main reliance. And my way of enforcing this is to say that the author-catalog is essentially the catalog, and may be regarded as the whole of it. For a catalog, properly speaking, seems to require simply one entry of each of the objects cataloged, with suitable cross-references. When we regard the matter from this point of view we have to admit that our subject-catalogs or subject entries, especially the analytical entries which now-a-days make so large a share of all, constitute more properly a reader's guide than part of a catalog. It is along this line that lies such *theoretical* preference as I have, and I own to having some, for the separate author-catalog. And this preference is strengthened by the treatment which under my conception of present and future needs, I propose to give to the subject portion of the catalog.

With this hint of what is coming let me return to the author-catalog for a moment to remark that even this piece of apparatus, excellent as it is, cannot be so well made as to obviate serious difficulties in the ready finding of books by its means, and that such difficulties are greatly increased with its growth in extent. There is first the presence of a large number of entries under one family name. It might almost be said that the majority of references to the author-catalog will be made with only the family name of the author in mind. You will understand what I mean, when I say that I find this so often the case that I am constantly discarding the author-reference and turning to the subject or title entry. In our author-catalog, for example, I would hardly care to try to find a book by Wilson or Harris or Weber or Mueller, not knowing the Christian names. Again, where there are a good many titles

under one author, they must be arranged alphabetically by the first word of the title, but we very often don't know what that word is. A strong argument can here be made for transposing titles as under Thackeray, "Philip, Adventures of," rather than "Adventures of Philip," but we have sworn allegiance to the good American rule of entry under first-word not an adjective, and we will not let the philosophic Germans, with their "schlagwort" principle, lead us astray. We note for one thing that the more they flounder the deeper they get in the bog.

But where, you may ask, are you leading us? And I may forecast the conclusion of the whole matter by saying that I am trying to lead you to the sense, which I so often keenly feel, of the futility of the catalog as we have it, and to the acceptance of the idea that the future of the catalog is that something else shall be substituted for it as the readers' first or main reliance in finding books. Having thus sung the praises of the author-catalog and then shown its futility, I now pass to what I propose to do in the subject part of the catalog. At Amherst we are just at the point where we must make over our subject-catalog which has grown up in a rather makeshift manner during the last twenty years. We have just re-made our entire author-catalog on the standard-size card, incorporating, so far as we have been able, the Library of Congress printed cards, and, barring such ills as catalogs are born to, it is in satisfactory shape.

But we have on hand this old subject catalog made on the dictionary plan, and what shall we do with that? Some things I have made up my mind to, while others are but vaguely determined, and I have seized upon this as a good opportunity to bring the matter before an intelligent, and sympathetic, company of fellow-workers, believing that I may largely clarify and settle my views by expressing them.

In the first place, I am going to place large reliance on class-lists. The old controversy as to the relative merits of classified and alphabetical subject catalogs does not interest us much if we can have both, which we mean to secure. In fact, modern and thoroughgoing library classification has put this whole matter in a new light, for a well-classified library has in its shelf-lists, plus its D.C. or E.C. or other classification book, a complete classified catalog well indexed. One question

remains with us. Shall we copy the shelf-lists for use in the delivery room or shall we put the shelf-lists themselves there? I am inclined to think we can put the shelf-lists there and save the copying. Whether we shall use card or sheet shelf-lists is another question of indifferent importance. But we are going to retain our alphabetical subject-catalog, only with several important distinctions. For each subject which forms a heading in the shelf-lists we will have a card headed with the name of the subject and merely referring to the number in the shelf-list. Thus we will save the inane duplication between subject-catalog and shelf-list so often found.

In the same alphabetical arrangement will appear all title cards, and such cards will be made for all books except those clearly not needing them. There will also be cards for a great number of individual subjects as names of persons and of places, and thousands of other subject-headings not found as headings in the shelf-lists, and on these cards the individual books will be entered. These three features, entry under individual and minute subjects, reference to shelf-lists for more general ones, and entry under title will serve pretty well the purposes of the usual subject-catalog with one very important exception—that of analyticals. As to analyticals I cannot believe that the catalog of the future is going to be burdened with them. Their purpose is to be served otherwise, through what we may roughly call bibliographies, including in this term indexes such as Poole's and the A. L. A. which may be said to give brief bibliographies under multitudes of subject headings. No practice current in libraries seems to me more open to the charge of superstition than the blind following of the practice of loading our catalogs with analyticals, when our eyes ought to be open to the new era of bibliographies and indexes. It should be noted that it is a serious injury to the reader to put before him a crude list of analytical entries such as we might get together in our catalog, when we could refer to a good reading-list on the subject. The superiority of good reading-lists or bibliographies to catalog analyticals has long been so apparent to me that I marvel that it is so slowly recognized by my brethren. Last year one of our English teachers asked me to put in the reading-room such books as I could, containing critical or other essays on Tennyson, saying he supposed I would find twelve or fifteen; in half-an-hour

I had sixty-two such books on the shelves, finding them all referred to in the "A. L. A. index." If anything more thoroughgoing had been called for, there is Anderson's excellent bibliography in the "Great writers' series" to say nothing of the Poole's Index references. We have some analyticals under Tennyson in our subject-catalog, but we have stopped making them and consider them of no use. In fact, we have for a good while warned readers that our subject-catalog is not to be used for anything but the most ordinary finding of books on given subjects.

What I am coming at then is that for another feature our subject-catalog will contain references on a great many subjects to special bibliographies and reading-lists. It would surprise many librarians to find how many such can now be found. And on all subjects there is the general direction to consult the indexes. This general direction cannot be repeated under every heading, but must be understood. And this in turn is like saying, "Don't depend on this catalog for your references, but look in the well-known library helps." For a great many subjects the best source for the reader to consult for brief information, and for references to fuller reading, is one of the encyclopædias.

But not so much to the general encyclopædias should readers be referred or the librarian go in their behalf, as to the special encyclopædics works, *e.g.,* to the "Dictionary of Christian antiquities" for Mosaics, the Cross, the Aureole, etc.; to the "Dictionary for music" for all musical subjects, etc., etc. You must naturally anticipate me in all this and see that what I am about to say is that it is hopeless to have the catalog give all these indications, and that when we have done our best and made the catalog as good as we can, we should not be content to let our readers go to it and regarding it as their one resource turn away disappointed when they fail to find what they want—and I don't need to adduce instances to satisfy you that the more elaborate and theoretically fine we make it the less easily will the average reader find his way through its mazes.

To support my charge of a superstitious adherence to outworn beliefs and practices as to our catalogs, let me ask if we have sufficiently noted the bearing, the revolutionary effect I may say, of two of the recent great changes in library administration. We have substituted two important new factors for

the catalog (you will recall that I referred to the need of a substitute for the author-catalog) and fail to perceive that it is a substitution. The two factors are, first, access to minutely classified books on the shelves, and second, the reference librarian, or in smaller libraries the librarian acting as guide, philosopher and friend. Who wants a catalog now? Clearly not the reader whose ends are so much better served by substitutes we have provided. No, it is now the attendant who wants the catalog, and if it is made for the attendant it will not be the old-fashioned catalog. From this point of view I look to see developed in various libraries, to take the place of the formal subject-catalog, interesting pieces of literary apparatus, taking shape from the individuality of the librarian or the reference librarian and best adapted in each case to aid in exploiting most fully and most readily the resources of the library. This apparatus will consist of a constantly increasing collection of references; lists, made on the spot or procured from others; hap-hazard notes gathered in reading; anything which may prove a key to some literary treasure. It may be in the form of a card catalog or it may not. The cards in the catalog at the attendant's hand may be an index to a mass of material written on larger or smaller sheets laid in drawers or kept in a vertical-file cabinet. And while this material grows, it will constantly be revised. One thing more, looking up subjects in a library with the aid of the attendant and such an apparatus is an immensely valuable educative process. For the attendant will not have the exclusive use of this apparatus, but it will be available to all comers, the attendant often needing only to give a word of suggestion as to how to go to work. The special adaptation of such a method of library research to college or school pupils or to members of clubs and study classes must be apparent to all; and as our public libraries are through their use by such clubs and classes rapidly assuming, so far as their research work is concerned, the character of school or college libraries, the universal application of the same principle to all our libraries will not be questioned.

Among all the changes and improvements which are so rapidly marking the progress of the public library movement, the new classifications, the removal of barriers to free contact with the books, the opening of children's rooms, no feature of progress is more marked or more characteristic than the sub-

stitution of the vital for the mechanical—bringing in, we may say, the human touch. I shall be glad if I have thrown any light on the way in which this new method and spirit is to affect the future of the catalog.

BOOK NOTES IN CARD CATALOGS

Some notes by Dr. William Dawson Johnston, then librarian of the United States Bureau of Education, on the problems of book annotation for the use of the public.

A biographical sketch of Dr. Johnston will be found in Volume I of this series. Since the issue of that volume Dr. Johnston has resigned the librarianship at St. Paul, Minn., and since November, 1921 has had charge of the American Library in Paris, France.

No branch of bibliographical activity is more attractive to the benevolent librarian than book annotation; none is more difficult. The desirability and the importance of book notes has been sufficiently emphasized—perhaps exaggerated. But the difficulties and the problems of book annotation have been either minimized or overlooked altogether.

Among the most prominent of the problems are these: (1) What classes of literature are to be annotated? and how? (2) For whom are the notes in each case to be written? and how? (3) And where are the notes in each case to appear?

It may be that it is only popular literature, or the literature of popular subjects that should be annotated; or, perhaps, all literature is to be annotated, or evaluated, or described with an impartial use of nouns and adjectives. This we need not discuss in this place.

In answer to the second question, however, more must be said. Even if we could be brought to think that the literature to be described was one homogeneous mass to be treated in a single stereotyped fashion, we could never fail to see that it would be used by a very heterogeneous mass of readers, and would decide to adapt the character of our notes to their use. Among the many different classes to whom a book note is useful, two general classes may be noted: first, those who wish to learn the character of a given book, and, second, the great

majority who desire information regarding the literature upon a given subject.

Among the first class are librarians, and for the most part librarians only. They already have in their custody 500, 5000 or 50,000 books, the character of which, so far as the librarian is concerned, has already been determined. In purchasing them, the librarian has decided that they would be useful to the community in which the library is situated.

But while the utility of the books in the librarian's custody has already been determined, that of future purchases has not. Every suggested purchase raises questions which the conscientious librarian must answer in some fashion or other. Has this book been printed under another title or in another edition? and if so, what is the difference? May the same matter in substance be found in another work by the same author or by another author already in the library? and if so, in what respect is it different? These and similar questions arise and must be answered with a view to the symmetrical and wise development of the collections as a whole.

The problem of the average reader is quite different. He is bent upon the acquisition of knowledge, not the collection of books. He has to select from the accumulated literature of years, the library from the publications of a single season; he has to satisfy a specific demand, the librarian a general one; he may choose from the books themselves, the librarian from the descriptions of the books. The reader has therefore little need or desire for bibliographical information about any particular book. He desires a book, presumably the best, upon a given subject—a compendious biography of Queen Victoria, a popular history of England, an exhaustive description of the Russian empire, etc., etc. These are distinct demands, well-defined and practical; how can they be met more successfully than they are.

The answer to this question is involved in the answer to the third question, as to where the notes in each case are to appear. Certainly librarians should have and will have in time a bibliographical periodical to help them in selecting from the mass of current publications the books which may be most useful in their community. And no less certainly every library should publish a bulletin of accessions, with notes, sometimes helpful, sometimes amusing. But should notes which are of use in these periodicals be clipped and pasted on catalog cards? Should

the note on Morley's Gladstone, printed in the bulletin, be entered under Morley in the card catalog, or under Gladstone, or under both? I am disposed to believe that it should be entered under neither. I would not enter it under Morley, partly because it would seldom be seen there, and partly because when it was seen it would be as likely to hinder or mislead the reader as to help him—at any rate, as soon as the note became antiquated. If I examine the catalog to get the shelfmark for this book I want to get it as quickly as possible; I do not want to find some one in my way reading book notes; and when I find the card I want simply the shelfmark; all else is twittering. Moreover, the note which was most helpful at the time when the book was published, the note which described the book as the most exhaustive or authoritative work upon the subject, may become misleading because of the appearance of some more exhaustive or authoritative work. Similar objections obtain if the note is entered on an author card under the subject heading Gladstone.

But even if a note could be written which would be valuable alike in the bulletin and in the catalog, a note could not be written which would be alike valuable under the author and under the subject heading. One note, for example, may be needed on Hamilton's Gladstone, but another and very different note is needed on Gladstone literature. In describing the individual book it would be desirable to speak of Hamilton's relations with Gladstone, and to indicate the scope of his monograph; in describing the most useful books relating to Gladstone, this book, if mentioned at all, would be simply referred to, and then only because it is an exceptionally good book of its class, and if described would be described by its class characteristics, and not by its individual characteristics.

From the administrative point of view the reasons for discarding a poor note and securing a good one, for discouraging the transfer of the librarian's critical efforts from the bulletin to the catalog, and for emphasizing among bibliographers the distinction between the author note and the subject note are even more cogent. A card catalog is useful in inverse ratio to its size. The lengthening of the entry and the multiplication of entries are therefore to be avoided as much as possible. An author entry full enough to identify a particular book, a subject entry or guide card full enough to point out

the best accessible literature on a given subject, are for the most part sufficient. The student desires, besides a well classified library and access to the shelves, an author catalog only. This need is met by every well-organized reference library. The general reader, on the other hand—and we are all general readers in so far as fate will permit—the general reader, whom it is the object of the circulating library to serve, wants a subject catalog, not a complete index to a collection, the antiquated books and all, but, as a rule, few references, and those upon the most popular subjects only; in other words, a guide to the best that the library has on this subject or on that.

Is there not some way in which this demand may be satisfied, and our bibliographical apparatus at the same time rendered less cumbersome? Would not a best books card, perhaps, serve this purpose?—one on each of the most popular subjects, prepared by competent authorities, with notes such as made famous the Boston Public Library catalog of books in the classes of history, biography, and travel in 1873. Such a card might, in small circulating libraries and in branch libraries at least take the place of the 10 or 20 or more cards already filed; in other libraries it might be added to the cards already filed in the catalog. In any case the essential entry might be provided by co-operation, while additional entries remained a matter of local option.

This device would not enable us to get all our books read by everybody—if that should be our ambition—and it would increase the need for duplicates. It might, perhaps, diminish the sum total of books in circulation, but, on the other hand, it would encourage the reading of the books that were in circulation, and in the long run help us to secure the best reading for the largest number at the least cost.

CARD CATALOGS: SUGGESTIONS FOR MAKING THEM USABLE

A good rule for the public is found on the title page of the Washington Directory: "To find a name in this directory, you must know how to spell it."

The paper quoted below appeared in the Library Journal in December, 1898, and the author, Mr. Willard Austen, then reference librarian of Cornell University, discusses labels, guide cards and the "library hand."

Mr. Austen graduated from Cornell University in 1891, and since 1892 he has been connected with its library, first as reference assistant and then as librarian.

When compared with a printed catalog, the card catalog is subject to much criticism, not alone because of the non-portable and limited-number-of-copies features, but because of the difficulty of understanding it and the slowness with which one must use it. Much of this fault-finding is groundless, but with some it has become chronic and not easily cured.

The printed page of a catalog has the advantage of displaying to the eye several titles at one time, from which the user can select the one wanted more quickly than from a card catalog, which displays only one title at a time. This is a real advantage in the matter of time-saving, but the card catalog offers many advantages that offset this. It is not my purpose, however, to discuss the merits of the two, but to show how the greatest objection raised against the card system may be in a measure overcome, at least, how the time necessarily consumed in using a card catalog may be greatly decreased.

There is a great difference in card catalogs as regards their usefulness and the facility with which they are used. Some librarians find their readers using the catalog with facility, while others complain that the public cannot be induced to use

it except to a limited extent. As the human mind averages pretty much the same, taking one community with another, there must be some difference in the construction of the catalog to account for this difference in the degree of usefulness.

Everyone who has investigated card catalogs knows that while fundamentally they are the same, there is a considerable difference in the way the details are worked out, and much of the secret of usefulness of a catalog will be found to lie in these details; so that while a user may not be conscious of just the difference between two similar catalogs, he does know that it is easier to use some than others. It is concerning some of these details which have been found helpful, without the user knowing just why, in most instances, that I wish to speak briefly.

The external appearance, to begin with, has not a little to do with the attractiveness of a catalog, and hence with the disposition on the part of the readers to use it. The change from the old two-compartment drawer to the single drawer was a good one. Apart from the fact that a person does not monopolize so much of the catalog each time he consults it, the fewer number of cards that must be fingered in the single drawer, makes the labor of finding the particular title wanted seem easier. Many persons are discouraged upon opening a drawer containing two rows of cards by the apparent difficulty of finding what is wanted. In general, then, the breaking up of the catalog into smaller divisions is a means of encouraging readers to use it.

The method of labelling the drawers is another important factor in facilitating the use of a card catalog. I know I go counter to established usage when I say the practice of indicating on the label the ending, as well as the beginning on the contents, is a hindrance to use. The principal reason why it is a hindrance is that it complicates the lettering on the drawer to such an extent that the user must carefully read all of each label before he is sure the thing he is looking for is in the drawer he is looking at. It necessitates twice as many labels as are necessary. Every good is served by making each label indicate the beginning of the contents of a drawer, when it is self-evident that the limit is everything alphabetically ahead of the beginning of the next drawer. It is true that dictionaries indicate on the left of the top of each page the beginning word

on the page, and on the right side the last word on the page. The usefulness of this latter is questionable. Much more service would be rendered to users of dictionaries if over each column were placed the first word in the column and the ending let take care of itself.

Another particular in regard to labelling in which library catalogs have not profited by the example set by dictionary makers is in the use of words instead of a meaningless combination of letters on the outside of the drawer. The average person will find his way to the contents of a drawer much quicker if he sees on the outside a word which stands for a definite thing than if he sees only three or four letters which mean nothing. When the label-word is identical with the word sought for, as is the case over and over again with the word system, the advantage is great. Readers are encouraged in the use of a card catalog very much when they comprehend the meaning of the things they see about it, and conversely are discouraged by encountering hieroglyphics which convey no intelligible idea to the mind.

So much for the exterior. The first thing the eye rests upon when a catalog drawer is opened is a mass of white cards broken up here and there by guides or indicators to show the subdivisions. In the use of these guides there is a good opportunity to make the catalog easy to use. The same principle holds here that has been considered with reference to the outside label. Combinations of letters that have no meaning other than to indicate where a change takes place are well-nigh useless as guides to contents and have the same discouraging effect because of their meaninglessness. On the other hand, if the guides have intelligible words written upon them it makes the catalog seem simple, and frequently, as in the case of drawer labels, directs the reader at once to the very word he is looking for. As to the frequency with which guides are placed, it is well known that too many guides are a source of confusion, while too few compel the user to pick over too many cards to find the one sought for. A good working rule for placing guides in a catalog is to select the important authors and subjects contained in any one drawer and place guides for each, using the full word or words, then fill in other guides for the less important in such a way that not more than an inch or an inch and a half of cards is left without a guide.

Finally, when the card sought after is found there are two or three ways in which it may be made more intelligible and attractive than is often done. Of the several methods of internal arrangement the dictionary plan has come to be considered the only practical one for general use. This may be done by combining the author, title, and subject cards in one alphabet or by a division of these parts. The classed catalog cannot be made to serve the needs of the general reader, if indeed it can serve the needs of anyone but the one who made it, since hardly two specialists can be found who are agreed upon the divisions and subdivisions of their own field of investigation. If doctors disagree among themselves, how can the poor lay librarian hope to devise a system acceptable to them?

On the dictionary plan, the key to the location of the card sought is the author's name, the first word of the title, or the subject word. Naturally this key word should have the most conspicuous place on the card, which place can be none other than the extreme upper left corner. To subordinate this word to any other portion of the card is a source of annoyance and causes loss of facility with which the catalog is used. When the catalog is classed in its arrangement the key to its arrangement is the class number then this number rightfully has the prominent place on the card. But when the cards are arranged on the dictionary plan the class number should be subordinated to the word by which the card is alphabetized. Even with the dictionary arrangement many catalogs continue to give the class number the position of importance on the card, causing thereby every reader to stumble over this obstruction, for such it becomes, in his effort to get at the particular author, title, or subject wanted. The class mark, when used for the call number, need not be taken into account until the title wanted is found. To have this mark forced upon the attention every time a new card comes to view in looking through the catalog cannot but result in a loss of the power of attention and a retardation of the work of finding what is wanted.

The handwriting used in making library catalogs in a general way has become well known. A library hand, whether writing or printing, stands for an upright handwriting, because greater clearness is thereby gained. It is singular that we have not appreciated the force of this difference in handwriting

before, knowing as we have for so long that italic or sloping type is less clear than the Roman or ordinary type. But all upright handwriting or printing is not equally clear. An analysis of the working of the mind with reference to reading will help to make the matter clear. Ordinarily writing or printing is read by words; the individual letters are not taken into account, except in reading proof, as is frequently shown by the fact that the eye passes over misspelled words when there are enough correct letters to cause the word to resemble strongly the word correctly spelled. Reading then by words, as we do, it is essential that each word stand out clearly from those adjoining. As everyone knows from experience a long word is taken in less easily than a short one—it requires a little more of the power of attention. This fact suggests that the individual letters in a word should not be unduly separated, thereby making a long word out of a short one. Crowding the letters together is of course faulty because the component letters are thereby rendered indistinct and unfamiliar words must always be spelled out until they become familiar. Types, known to typographers as "lean" and "fat," or condensed and extended, are not used except for the purpose of filling a given space or bringing a certain number of words within the allotted space, because clearness is sacrificed by the use of either. For the same reason individual letters in writing should be neither condensed nor extended, if clearness is the first consideration. Letters of the normal proportions placed as closely together as is consistent with clearness permits a word to be read with the least possible expenditure of the power of attention. Another factor in clearness is the proportion between the height of the letters and the clear space between the lines. To make the letters so large up and down that the lines of writing are only indistinctly separated from each other at the normal reading distance from the eye unduly taxes the attention. Much of the writing known as the library hand is too large perpendicularly, has too much space between the letters horizontally, and not enough space between the words to allow each word to stand out clearly. The possible difference between the clearest handwriting and that which is reasonably clear, as most library hands are, is not great, perhaps; but every means which helps to make a card catalog clear and simple is worthy the attention of a library seeking to be of the largest possible use to a community.

COMMON SENSE IN CATALOGING SMALL LIBRARIES

Miss Agnes Van Valkenburgh, then of the Milwaukee Public Library, says in this paper that Cataloging is the only profession where a smattering of everything is of more value than an exhaustive knowledge of any one branch, and that this knowledge should be utilized to the fullest extent in the indexing of subjects. The author distinguishes clearly the essentials from non-essentials.

A sketch of Miss Van Valkenburgh appears on page 105.

No doubt many of my audience, driven by a sense of duty, have attended, in former years, the meetings of the Catalog Section, and some of the bravest of you may have read our printed reports and have been discouraged thereby. The year that I was an officer of this section we spent nearly the whole of a lovely summer afternoon discussing the burning topic "Shall the collation and series note be on a separate line immediately after the date and preceding other notes?" with the corollary, "Shall the collation precede the contents?" The battle as to whether 32 or 33 size cards are preferable has been waged up one side and down the other, and after quantities of oratorical blood have been spilt, the invariable result is that each side is more than ever convinced that they are in the right. The question of indicating size notation by letter or figure, or by giving the actual measurements of the book, has employed the brightest intellects of our profession during long spaces of time.

Attending these sessions has always produced in me a feeling of ignorance and depression. Now, depression is not a normal state, and ignorance is something which no cataloger can endure for a moment, so seeking a way to soothe my feelings without compromising my self-respect, I was inspired with the

knowledge that these things are not for us. The Library of Congress, historical and university libraries are for scholars, and bibliographical details are important for them; but for any public library, small ones in particular, they are of no importance. If our entries should stray one-sixteenth of an inch too near the top of the card, nobody knows and nobody cares. Colophons and collation, thickness of cards and color of ink are as if they were not, to our grateful and careless public, who rise up and call us blessed if we can quickly give them what they are looking for; or better still, if we can enable them to help themselves to the library's resources.

The catalog of a public library may mean either a printed list or a catalog on cards. For the small library, however, the printed catalog is out of the question because of its expense; then it is out of date before it is in the hands of the people, and the American public is so progressive it always insists on having the very latest thing. There is a library in Michigan, with an annual appropriation of $2100, which spent $1526.70 in hiring an amateur to print a catalog for them. It was worth the money as a curiosity, and had the added charm of being up to date for a long time, as they could not afford to buy any books for nearly two years, but somehow it was not regarded as an unqualified success. At any rate they never did it again.

As a substitute for a more formal printed list, the local paper is nearly always willing to print a weekly column furnished by the library, either notes on new books or special lists taken from the card catalog, and the printer will usually run off as many extra copies of the lists as are wanted for the cost of the paper. To print even a title-a-line finding list is beyond the reach of most small libraries, so this talk will be confined entirely to the card catalog, as that, like the poor, is always with us and often seems to be regarded with dread by the person destined by Providence and the library board to be the maker thereof.

A catalog is, or should be, the means of placing the contents of a library at the disposal of the public in the clearest, simplest and easiest form; the dictionary definition of this word from this and is not entirely satisfactory, but librarians should unite in adopting the revised version. The cataloger who bears this definition always in mind will find her duties greatly simplified. It is also desirable for her to remember that she is mak-

ing the catalog for the public and not for herself; if she finds that her patrons are confused by cards of various colors, written in inks of divers hues, let her drop the rainbow scheme and stick to black and white.

It is well to use the capitalization in ordinary use by the best writers; it is unpatriotic to write American with a small letter, *lèse majesté* no to give the King his due honor, blasphemy to show so little respect for saints and martyrs and lack of courtesy to deny any gentleman, but a Frenchman, a capital for Mr. Now that the linotype has done away with the scarcity of capital letters in type, let us stop being a warning instead of an example in this respect, and join the teachers in their efforts to instruct the young in the correct use of written English.

If it is necessary to consult a memorandum or look at a sample in order to remember how many times to underscore the principal word of a title, it will be perfectly safe to omit the underscoring altogether, as a detail which has so little significance for the cataloger will not greatly benefit the general reader.

Title entries are very simple, as it is only necessary to ask oneself if anyone would look for the book by its title and make the entry accordingly, but author and subject cataloging are more complex, and present many difficulties to the beginner.

It is customary to make a very full entry on the author card, but for the small library it is only necessary to give the author, all of the title which will serve to explain the contents of the book, translator or editor, series if well known, and date. Of course one must beware of the man who has written a "Handbook of botany," a "Manual of botany," a "Text-book of botany," and a "Treatise on botany"; his titles will not bear shortening, but such monotonously prolific writers are fortunately uncommon. It is unnecessary to give either the publisher or the size of the book on the catalog card, since all these details are given in the accessions book and may easily be consulted there.

The error of abbreviation to the point of confusing the patrons is to be carefully avoided in the struggle for simplicity. No community has ever yet been found which takes kindly to colon substitutes for Christian names. "J:" never seems to mean John to the non-professional intellect, and is usually trans-

lated as an error in punctuation and a complexity in arrangement.

Give the Christian name in full if there is but one; if two or more, give the first in full and initials for the others, unless the author elects to place the emphasis on his middle name, when we will be courteous enough to follow his lead, only gratituously adding the first name in full for the sake of the alphabetical arrangement. Whichever way one decides about authors who use pseudonyms, the choice will be regretted; but what is the use in making every one who wants Anthony Hope's books look under Hawkins? Of course it will increase the sum total of human knowledge, but will not information so acquired be more than overbalanced by the mental irritation of the patron? It also seems the only gracious procedure to take a man's name as he himself prefers it. Why should an unholy joy fill the cataloger's heart when she has searched the records and restored to an author a middle name or a few initials which he has discarded as superfluous? Librarians seem to be the only people in the world who have a constitutional unwillingness to let a man overcome the injustice or prodigality of his sponsors in baptism. This officiousness at times brings its merited punishment, for one library at least duplicated a set of the "Philosophical works" of Kuno Fischer, in eight volumes—German at that—because a too zealous cataloger supplied him with two additional names and neglected a cross reference card.

The idea of giving a brief biographical sketch of each person on every card written is a wicked waste of the most precious thing in the world. Catalogs are not unknown where there are 30 entries, each saying "Washington, George, first President of the United States, 1732-1799." Isn't that dreadful? If the patrons of a library do not already know who was the first president of their country, they are past helping by reiteration on a catalog card; but with a mistaken idea of helpfulness these catalogs will probably go on offering that truthful but absolutely useless bit of information until the end of time. Dates of birth and death are unnecessary on any card, unless to distinguish members of those fortunate families where the gift of authorship has proven hereditary.

The most important part of cataloging is the indexing of subjects, and here comes into play every scrap of knowledge which has ever been acquired. This is the only profession where

a smattering of everything is of more value than an exhaustive knowledge of any one branch. Breadth, not depth of learning, is the desirable thing for a cataloger, and the only way to acquire this rather superficial knowledge is to listen when wiser folk talk, and to read, read, read. Read everything, prose and poetry, religion and the magazines, limericks and philosophy, good books, and those not so good; one can never become learned by following this course, but she will increase her usefulness, and that is better.

Entries for articles in books of collected essays or biographies ("analyticals" so called) form the most useful feature of a catalog. Any one can find a life of Milton on the shelves, but not every one knows that an illuminating essay about him is contained in Lowell's "Among my books;" the librarian might ever forget it for the moment, but a good catalog does not forget.

The ability to judge of the importance of articles grows with experience; but it is better to include the doubtful one than to omit it and then regret it when too late. In this also it is well to season zeal with discretion; to enter Mrs. Alexander's "Forging the fetters" under "Slavery" or that old nursery classic, "The motherless turkeys," under "Poultry" is ridiculous but not unknown. A list of subject headings is absolutely necessary, and as this work has been done by experts so much better than any amateur could hope to do it, one should buy the "American Library Association list of subject headings" even if it means some sacrifice. It is not necessary to follow these headings exactly if others are preferred; it is always well to have a little independence in one's work, and each librarian knows the needs and peculiarities of her readers better than any one else can, and she should have the courage to stick to the results of her own experience.

Subject entries should be made as easy to understand as possible; there was once a catalog where Catherine II. of Russia masqueraded as "Yekaterina," because, forsooth, that is a transliteration of the Russian name. Of course librarians are familiar with the Latin names of plants and animals; but the small boy who has never heard of the *merula migratoria* looks in your catalog for "robin" and should find under that heading all which the library contains about that sociable bird.

Cross-references are so called from the effect they have

upon the patron, but they are nevertheless essential and should be freely used. A cataloger should never be afraid to make entries in her catalog; it is a very desirable thing for librarians to have a good memory; but unfortunately, when they die, as does sometimes happen, they are compelled to take their memories with them as their reward or punishment, and an entry on a catalog card is of more stability than they. It is always a good plan to keep an eye on the topic which is of local interest in one's own town or state. When the Woman's Club has decided to study Russian history, Art in Spain, Earthquakes, and Cleanliness of slaughterhouses, all at the same time (many times the subjects are more diverse) the catalog should have as much as possible to say on each topic.

Fortunately one can catalog only one book at a time, and if it is impossible to determine what it is about from preface, table of contents, index or by dipping into it oneself, it may be handed to some specialist for his decision; or wanting such a coadjutor, one may consult the state library commission or the nearest cataloger who has had more experience. In many cases a book which is unintelligible in the afternoon may be as clear as day the next morning, so it is well not to feel that the perplexing ones must be done on the instant.

The librarian of the small library has so many duties that cataloging must be sandwiched in between janitor work and labors at the desk, and there is little time which can be devoted strictly to that branch; but after all it is not so very formidable, and the odds and ends of time cannot be more profitably employed. Made with a spirit of patience and courage and common sense, the catalog will come to stand for the two best things in the world, simplicity and helpfulness.

THE CATALOGING OF CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Certain changes from the accepted forms used in cataloging books for adults, although the general principles are the same, were advocated by Miss Mildred A. Collar, then of the Pratt Institute Free Library, Brooklyn, in 1903. The rules for cataloging are given with reasons for the forms of cards and the information appearing on them. Much space is devoted to a discussion of subject headings and cross references. Warnings of what not to do appear as well as suggestions for the treatment of general subjects, subdivisions, form headings and analytics.

A sketch of Miss Collar (now Mrs. C. C. Gardner) appears on page 267.

There are three reasons for having a card catalog in a children's room where the books are on open shelves; first, for the use of teachers, parents, and students; second, for the librarian and her assistants; third for the children.

Teachers are accustomed to use a card catalog in the general library, and will turn to it in the children's room rather than to the shelves, to find the material they want. By a judicious use of subject-headings, careful analytical work and good cataloging, the card catalog can be made of the greatest assistance to them.

The children's librarian and her assistants will use the catalog to supplement their knowledge of the books, and constantly to verify work on lists, and to answer questions as to edition, etc., when the books are not on the shelves.

The children I have put last as users of a card catalog but I hope they may be promoted to the first place when they have learned the use and uses of catalogs, and when catalogs have been made suited to their use.

Keeping in mind, then, the use which is to be made of the card catalog in the children's room, it is easier to decide upon

its most essential features, and to make such changes in the methods of cataloging followed in other departments of the library, as this usage would seem to require.

Some, if not all, of the arguments in favor of uniformity in the work would apply here as in classification, but for one who has had experience with children, knows their demands and their point of view, the more or less mechanical methods of cataloging when done for a mass of books at one time, seem entirely inadequate.

Whenever it is practicable children's books should be cataloged for the children's catalog in the children's department, or, at least, by the children's librarian or one of her assistants. When done at the same time and by the same person who catalogs the books for the general library, it is practically copying, without sufficient consideration of the peculiar needs and demands of the children's room. Nevertheless, most of the libraries reporting on this subject, make no difference in the information given on the cards for the general catalog, and for the one in the children's room—and so it is necessary to indicate very clearly and in detail, the changes which seem advisable in making a card catalog for a children's library.

Form of catalog.

Many children's rooms have, as yet, no separate catalog, others have merely a brief list of author and title entries, but I think there can be little difference of opinion as to the form of card catalog most useful in the children's room.

The dictionary catalog is the one best fitted to the requirements, and in those libraries where it has been in use has justified the value set upon it.

Cards.

Two sizes of cards are used; the regular catalog card size (P size) and the index size (I size). We use the I size and have found it entirely satisfactory. In only a comparatively few instances has it been necessary to use a second card, and there is economy of space in using the smaller size.

The general principles of cataloging should quite properly be the same for the children's catalog and for the catalog of the general library. The Library School rules or the A. L. A. code may be followed in the main. The changes which seem advisable, and which we have put into practice in the Pratt Institute Library, are as follows:

Author's name.

Enter under the best known form of the author's name, usually as it is given on the title-page.

Example: Under Carroll, Lewis, not under Dodgson, Charles Lutwidge.

The child knows nothing of "pseuds" and extra initials discovered after much search in biographical dictionaries; and, in fact, I think there is much to be said in favor of this rule for any catalog, unless it be one used solely by librarians, when their previous training might enable them to discover the author they are looking for when entered according to our Library School rule.

Use the anglicised form of a Greek or Latin author.

Example: Homer, not Homerus.
Virgil, not Virgilius.

Subject fullness for the author's name we have used throughout the catalog. This I do not advocate. Children frequently know authors by their full names, and would recognize them more easily than if initials only were given. Although we need not include forenames which authors do not themselves use on the title-page of their books, the forenames which are used should be written out.

Titles. Titles may be considered one of the most important points in cataloging children's books; that is the choice of title, its arrangement on the card, punctuation, etc. Many of the same considerations apply here as in cataloging in general, but there are some distinctions to be made. More license should be permitted it seems to me, words of explanation added, numerous omissions and transpositions, and in a word, the title made as readable, concise and clear as possible. Children, and grown people as well, will not read through a long title, this is especially true of poorly written or crowded titles, and the bit of important information at the very end may be entirely lost to them.

Sometimes a title may be shortened on the author card, and the fuller and more explanatory title be given on the subject card.

Example: Bateman. Book of aquaria. (Sufficient to identify the book) but on the subject card

under the heading *Aquarium*—title should read: "Book of aquaria, a practical guide to the construction, arrangement and management of fresh water and marine aquaria."

If the title is obscure in meaning a brief note of explanation is needed.

Example: Andrews, Jane. Stories of my four friends.
"The seasons of the year" in a note.

Lukin. Our wooden clock.
"How to make a clock."

Bennett. Barnaby Lee.
"A story of the settlement of New Amsterdam by the Dutch."

Imprint.

The subject of imprint on cards for a children's catalog is one about which there seems to be a diversity of opinion, as indeed about most points in cataloging.

In Pratt Institute Library we use:

1. Edition—number—new—revised.
2. Number of vols.; if more than one.
3. Illustrated (written in full) for all illustrations, except in Biography and History we specify maps and portraits.
4. Place of publication (in full); Boston not Bost.
5. Name of publisher (brief form) Scribner.
6. Date of publication—using also copyright date if differing more than one year.
7. Series note, especially if giving school grade.

The first two points do not differ from our general rules.

Paging we omit as utterly unnecessary considering the use which is made of the children's catalog.

Illustrations.

The word "illustrated" was finally decided upon by us after a short-lived attempt to use "Pictures." Pictures is not a good word as applied to book illustrations, and as the word "illustrated" occurs so frequently on the title-pages of books, children are accustomed to it, and it seems the best word to use on a catalog card. Certainly it is better to use the word in full than the abreviations "il." or "illus.", which children never understand. We go a little further and add the name of the il-

lustrator whenever the illustrator's work makes such added information of value. This has been found useful to art students and teachers and distinguishes an edition to the librarian or student more quickly than "new ed." or "rev. ed."

Example: Cornish. Life at the Zoo. Illustrated from photographs by Gambier Bolton.
Ewing. Lob Lie-by-the-fire. Illustrated by Randolph Caldecott.
Gould, Sabine Baring-. Old English fairy tales. Illustrated by Francis D. Bedford.

Size we omit as unimportant.

Place of publication given in full that it may mean something to the child, he will at least recognize it as the name of a place, and be more readily used by everyone.

Name of publisher.

In answer to the question: "Do you consider name of publisher of importance on a card for the children's catalog?" Five out of nine children's librarians answered "no," only two a definite "yes."

The reason for not using it given by the Buffalo library was that they use the smaller card and "more essential information might be crowded."

Miss Lyman of Scoville Institute says that "teachers and parents have made so much use of publisher in making lists, etc., that it seems of value."

In Medford it is used for the "sake of uniformity."

If the catalog is to be consulted by teachers, students, and parents there would seem to be very good reason for giving the publisher's name, as not infrequently the catalog is consulted for just such information—where to send or to go to buy the book?

In our own case it has been of the greatest assistance to the children's librarian in making lists, and it is a bit of information which I should put on a card in preference to place or date, if need be.

Price.

Some of the same reasons for giving price as for giving publisher's name might be urged, but there are two significant objections which decided us against its use on the catalog card.

First, Price is a very variable item and to be able to rely upon it, constant revision would be necessary.

Second, It does not seem advisable to associate in a child's mind a book and its money value, and this might easily be the result of putting the price on the face of the card.

It is unnecessary to take up other points in detail, but whatever information is given in the imprint should be in a smaller hand (if hand-written or hand-printed) and in smaller type if printed.

The imprint is only of secondary importance, and there is no better way that I know of to make what is important, the heading and title stand out, than to give other information in a smaller hand.

Different cards to be made.

Very few added entry cards except title cards, are needed in a children's catalog. In very rare cases we make an editor or compiler card.

Example: Bulfinch. Age of chivalry; ed. by Edward Everett Hale, we make a card for Hale, E. E.

And we make one for A. J. Church as adapter of Virgil.

Joint author cards need only be made when the second author is as well, or better known than the first.

Lodge, H. C., *and* Roosevelt, Theodore.
Seelye, E. E., *and* Eggleston, Edward.

Illustrator cards.

We make cards for all well-known and important illustrators, and as our catalog is used so much by art students and teachers of Pratt Institute, we have made cards, in some cases, for the poorer work of illustrators as useful in the study of the development of their work. It would not be advisable however to do this under the ordinary conditions of a children's library.

We have made cards for such illustrators of children's books as Howard Pyle, Percy Billinghurst, Randolph Caldecott, Boutet de Monvel, Kate Greenaway, and others.

Title cards should be made freely, and practically for all books except when the subject-heading would be the same as the first word of the title:

Example: Botany for young people.

Or when the title begins with an indefinite word.

Example: Manual of photography.

Series cards.

There are two kinds of series for which it seems advisable to make cards. First the series which really classifies the books.

Example: 1. Riverside art series; ed. by E. M. Hurll.

The second when a name has been given to a group of stories written serially.

Example: The Gypsy series.
The Katy did books.

We also use a series card quite frequently in order to group certain books which would otherwise be scattered if separately entered by title.

Example: The Brownie books.
Lucy books.
Rollo books.

Subject and subject analytical cards.

Our subject cards, with the subject heading in red ink on the top line, contain very much the same information as our author cards, sometimes with a longer or a shorter title, as the case may be.

Subject analytical cards are needed more often for children's books than for those for the general library, and at Pratt Institute Library we have made them very freely, especially for books which are in a general class, but have chapters devoted to specific subjects.

Example: Ingersoll. Book of the ocean. (Classed in 551) but containing chapters on Sea animals, Fishing, Life-saving service, Pirates, etc.

We make the form of the subject analytical card as simple as possible—author's name, title of analytical part, and we use the "in" form of analytical note whether paging is given or not.

The title of the analytical, if there is no chapter reading to use, has to be composed, and here much judgment and discrimination can be shown and the children's librarian improve her opportunity of making a clear and concise title.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to state that we do not underscore on the cards for the children's catalog. The children only wonder at such lines, and for our own convenience we trace all secondary and subject cards from the back of the main card,

giving subject-headings at the right hand side and the word "title," when a title card has been made, at the left, and note any other cards which may have been made for the book.

We omit accession numbers. The shelf-list is always at hand and we economize space by leaving them off the cards.

We print all our cards. Print is clearer to read and takes up less space than writing. Children, as well as grown people, seem to enjoy reading anything that is hand-printed, and an even, clear handwriting or printing is a good copy to put before a child, which he may consciously or unconsciously try to follow.

This may seem to many to be an elaborate scheme for cataloging children's books, especially when the books are on open shelves, but we have found it very useful and the extra time and trouble have been well repaid.

The Cleveland and Pittsburgh co-operative scheme of cataloging has undoubtedly provided many children's rooms with clearly printed cards for their catalogs. Although the wisdom of such extremely brief cataloging is open to question, there is plenty of space at the bottom of the card for adding such information as may be deemed advisable in a given library.

Subject Headings.

If we advocate and are to make a dictionary card catalog for the children's room, the matter of subject headings is of very great importance. A poor scheme of classification can be greatly helped by well-chosen subject headings used in the catalog, and however good a classification we may have, it can always be made more useful by the same means.

In this connection the same question as regards uniformity arises; whether the same list of subject headings shall be used in the main library and in the children's room. Perhaps on this point we have more lately heard decisive opinions than on many of the others. At the meeting of the A. L. A. at Magnolia last year Mr Brett announced the list of simplified subject headings which had been compiled at the Cleveland library to be used for the co-operative scheme of cataloging with Pittsburgh. This announcement brought forth several expressions of opinion on the subject, and Mr. Jones, of Salem, said that he did not consider there was any need of simplifying subject headings for children. Miss Olcott thought that the argument

stood in favor of more simple subject headings for both catalogs.

There seems to be no very strong reason for making the headings uniform. Children learn more readily than grown people anything that is required of them, and when they are transferred from the children's room to the main library the fact that they must look for Weather under Meteorology would not confuse them in the least, provided the reference was properly made.

Probably a list of simplified subject headings would be a good thing for many users of a library, and if this were made, we should not then hesitate to follow the same list in both departments.

Two ways suggest themselves for compiling a list of subject headings for a dictionary catalog. Either to follow pretty closely, if not in all particulars, a list of headings already compiled; or to assign subject headings to the books without any preconceived scheme, taking into consideration the special requirements of the department and studying in every way to meet them.

This has been practically our method at Pratt Institute Library, although whenever we assigned a subject heading we consulted the A. L. A. list, which we use in the main library, and if it differed we weighed very carefully the advantages of the change. It was surprising to find that after subject headings had been assigned to perhaps half the collection of books very few changes had to be made, either because of lack of uniformity or because synonymous terms had been used.

The list of subject headings prepared by Miss Ames, of the Cleveland library, may have been compiled in very much the same way, and as it is now in printed form will no doubt greatly assist catalogers of children's books, but like any list should only be used as a basis, not followed to the letter.

Any suggestions which might be made for a guide in compiling such lists would take the form of warnings rather than definite directions.

1. Not to abandon a good, well-known word or term, even if scientific, for a more popular one.

Example: Botany *see* Plants.
Biology *see* Life.

Botany and Biology are two terms which children need have no difficulty in learning the meaning of, and they cover far better than Plants or Life, books on those subjects.

2. To avoid indefinite and obscure headings.

Example: Age, Shadows, etc.
Seals (animals or crests?).

If a heading be adopted which seems obscure or ambiguous, a word of explanation may be added directly after it in parentheses:

Example: Cricket (game).

3. To omit headings for all disagreeable things, and for subjects which it does not seem desirable to have children dwell upon.

Example: Funerals.
Betting.
Regicides.

4. Do not use two headings so nearly synonymous that the distinction would be easily overlooked, and either a cross reference made necessary, or material lost.

Example: Wild flowers
and
Spring flowers.

5. Do not make too minute headings. This is not the same as advocating classing subjects together, but unless there is a great deal of material, subdivisions are unnecessary and require too many cross references. For example, making a separate heading for the different spices. There might be an article or possibly a book on nutmeg, but nearly all books which treat of spice at all would treat of more than one spice, and either analyticals would have to be made for the different spices or endless cross references would be needed.

6. Make very few *see* and *see also* references.

The subject headings should be assigned when the book is classified, and the cataloging done at the same time. In this way the classification can be supplemented, and one can be

quite sure that all the subject matter in the book has been carefully brought out.

There are several form and language headings which we have made and found extremely useful, such as: French books, German books, Picture books, Funny books, and Irish stories.

As in the Cleveland list, we have used phrases as compound headings combining a noun and a verb, such as:

Mines and mining
Paper and paper-making

The reason seems to be that books on these subjects almost invariably treat of both—mines and mining for instance—they are very closely connected and if alphabeted in a different place a *see* reference could be made.

Example: Mining *see* Mines and mining.

Subdivisions.—We have found it far better to make our subdivisions only after a good deal of material has been collected on a subject. For example, at first we used Easter for all the books, or poems, or pictures an Easter, but at a time when the call for the material was greater than usual, at Easter-time, we went over it carefully and made the subdivisions, Stories, Poems, Pictures, using the last for pictures only, or pictures and a verse, which might be used by the children or art students to copy for Easter cards.

We have used the subdivisions Stories and Poems quite frequently, and shall even more when our catalogue is complete.

The subdivisions under Country as given in the Cleveland list are, on the whole, useful, although we haven't material enough as yet to warrant making all of them, even under the U. S. It is much better to put all material on a country under the name of the country without any subhead until the subdivisions seem necessary. As in classification, it is difficult to draw the line between books on the history of a country and travel and description as they so often are combined, and if there be the subdivisions two cards have to be made for the same book when one under the name of the country alone would answer as well.

History is the first subdivision which we naturally make under country, then Description and travel, and a third which we have made in some few cases, has been Customs.

History as a subhead under some countries may have to be again subdivided by period, but this should be done only after so much material has been collected as to justify such subdivision. Very often the title will give the period, but in some cases it is almost impossible to restrict a book to a given period.

Historical fiction should be put under the country subdivided by History, by period if necessary, and Stories used as a final subhead. A simpler way, and one which would serve all the purposes, it seems to me, would be to put all Historical fiction under the country, subhead History and the word Stories, rather than attempting to put the fiction with the period. If the title does not clearly show the period, a note of explanation may be added.

Almost as careful and critical an examination is needed in order to assign subject headings for story books, as is needed to classify them.

The line between historical fiction and fiction having a good country setting or showing the manner and customs of a country need not be drawn as strictly in a collection of children's books as it has to be in a library for adults. Such a book as Mary Mapes Dodge's "Hans Brinker" should most certainly be represented in the catalog under Holland.

I am inclined to believe by means of well-chosen subject headings for children's stories many of the same results may be brought about in time, as would be attained by the method of classifying fiction with the subject.

Biography.—Subject headings for biography should be the best known form of the name of the biographee. This would sometimes be the full name and sometimes initials.

Example: Ole Bull.

The full name with epithets, dates, etc., should appear on guide cards preceding the subject cards.

Example: Bull, Olaus Boonemann, *called* Ole.
Henry IV., King of France. 1553-1610.

Reference should be made from the country, subhead History, to the most distinguished characters of that country, provided the biographies of such men would warrant making the connection.

Example: England. History.
See also Oliver Cromwell, etc.

Poetry.—Subject headings for individual poems may be made, and frequently would be most suggestive.

Example: Scott's "Lady of the lake," brought out under Scotland as descriptive of the country.

Mythology.—We subdivide by country:

Mythology, Norse.
" Greek, etc.

We should not be afraid of making too many subject headings. The more ways in which a book can be used the better. Frequently it is well to give a general heading to a book, and then analyze it very fully by means of subject headings.

For such a book as Ingersoll's "Book of the ocean" we have made twelve subject analytical cards, and the analytical subject cards from Pittsburg for Beard's "American boys' handy book" number twenty-six.

Subject headings should bring together, at least in the catalog, all the material on a subject. For example, our books about Indians and Indian stories are either classified with American history, or with fiction, but the heading Indians in the catalog will show us what we have on the subject, however widely they may be separated on the shelves.

Cross References.

The *"see"* and *"see also"* cross references may be made as the work of assigning subject headings goes on, or it may be done after the work is completed.

Miss Ames, who compiled the Cleveland list, suggests that they be made after the catalog is completed in order that the cataloger may be sure there is material under the heading to which the *"see alsos"* would have to be made at first, if no list of subject headings was being followed, because until the work was well under way you would not know what headings were going to be used.

On the other hand, it is a much safer way, it seems to me, to make the references when the subject headings are assigned and thus escape the possibility of referring from one heading to another, both of which have been used, but where the material on one subject has absolutely no interest in connection with the other.

It would seem hardly profitable for me in this paper to go into the deep and complicated subject of capitalization, but the

suggestion made in the Cleveland list of simplified subject headings is worth calling your attention to "that capitals in subject headings should be used as capitalization is taught in the schools." I do not think that the list always observes this rule however, for in the heading Nibelungen Lied, Lied has a small "l" and a small "d" is used for day in New Year's Day.

The main suggestions which I have to offer under classification are:

That mythology except Greek and Roman, all folk-lore and fairy tales be put together on the shelves of a children's room. That they be given the number 398 from the decimal classification, or an F, or some other designation.

That Roman and Greek mythology be classified with the history, art and literature of Greece and Rome.

That the subjects under Science be less subdivided than they are in the decimal classification, the general number for each class only being used; and that two numbers be chosen, one for general books on science and another for nature books in general.

That English and American literature be thrown into one class, and arranged on the shelves alphabetically by authors.

That a number chosen for Travel which shall bring the books close to the history of a country.

That Picture books be shelved together, and the letter P used to indicate their location.

That a collection of books for the youngest children be made and placed on low shelves.

Under the subject of cataloging I would advocate a dictionary card catalog for the children's room.

The best known form of author's name should be used, and carefully chosen titles. The information in the imprint should be given in such form that it may be understood by children and be useful to teachers and students.

That subject cards should be made under well-chosen, simple, and specific subject headings, not only for books as a whole, but also for parts and chapters of books.

From several different libraries has arisen the question, "How shall we induce the children to use the card catalog in the children's room?" In our own case I would say that since our catalog has been made a dictionary catalog the children,

with very slight introduction, have used it sufficiently to make me willing to carry it on and to make it better.

INSPIRATION THROUGH CATALOGING

An article of interest not only to the cataloger but to all library assistants as well, written by J. Christian Bay, chief classifier, The John Crerar Library, Chicago, and read at the Catalog Section, at the Asbury Park Conference of the American Library Association. A sketch of Mr. Bay appears on page 293.

Inspiration Through Cataloging

One of the most common superstitions about library work is that it offers not only a fair social advantage but also a snug haven of rest, relaxation and perpetual delight to the person fond of literary pursuits. We all know the stern reality does not sustain this popular view; that we are not called upon to collect, but to dispense information, and that mere enthusiasm about books will lead us nowhere, unless it is properly balanced with a wholesome regard for library routine and a willingness to bow to the spirit of service.

Education for library work presupposes such a tempering of enthusiasm to a practical end. We are not dreamers, but workers. We are not poets or historians or scientists shelved in a library position in order to enjoy leisure for a set study. Library training justly emphasizes the business, social and routine phases of library activity, and the personal equation is expected to be solved by personal effort.

I am concerned here with this personal equation. There is no lack of evidence in the experience of every one of us to show that its solution is a matter of common interest. We know that many are called but few are chosen, even in our profession. We are aware of a tendency of the young in our ranks leading away from its philosophical, scientific aspects and even disregarding the routine details, and instead making straight for what is termed administrative work. This is not an evidence of ambition toward higher things as much as it is due to the belief that an easier life and a greater power go with

administrative and representative duties, which is another delusion. We also know colleagues who perform routine duties in the spirit that fate has wronged them by consigning them to drudgery, and who regard their work as a necessary evil, hoping that the tide may turn and land them high and dry in a swivel chair on a Brussels rug in an exclusive office. The feeling of disatisfaction with routine work undoubtedly is responsible for much lack of buoyancy and for many a case of nervous prostration among library workers.

I give praise to the sentiment that whether we catalog, classify, shelve books or label them, file cards in a catalog or gather in our hands the threads, the web-work of administration, *we all are librarians.* I claim for us the ideal spirit that during the janitor's sickness any one of us willingly and in the sight of everybody would sweep out the reading room or dust the furniture. I still am to meet the librarian that refuses to admit the equal necessity of all work in the library, the equal privilege of doing it, the equal honor in performing it well.

This is theory and philosophy. In practice we frequently think differently. The work, well done, does not always seem its own reward. Cataloging and classification will grow monotonous, the preliminary leaves, semicolons, plates, subject headings and what not, bore us, and we chafe at the necessity which dooms us merely to pass into the routine a book which we would rather read and enjoy.

These days of severe specialization are apt to foster the idea that only functionating administrators are librarians *ex professo,* while those who functionate in a special line of work possess no general view of the whole field—precisely as the chief librarian is not considered versed in the details of other specialties than those which he prefers. The functionating librarian may speak for himself, yet as a type of worker he undoubtedly deserves credit for a mastery of detail not often attributed to him. The functionating *specialist,* however, frequently lacks the broad outlook on library science, and remains content to support such linguistic immoralities as "cataloger," "classifier," "shelver," "subject-headinger," "card-filer,"—the result being that only a "reference librarian" is considered some sort of a librarian, others are mere clerks. Even the romantic title of "page" is some positive value as compared with the

ignominy of "shelflister," just as a Reginald or Horace will color the human clay differently from that designed by John or Peter. The clay does not become inferior, perhaps, but different. Luke McLuke asserts that "the name is one-half of the education." Our specialties begin with their names,—they should not end with them!

If we fall into the error of regarding invariably the cataloger only as a person who catalogs books but is supposed to know little else, we are apt to narrow the sphere of influence and utility of a person perhaps well versed in matters of other special and probably general interest in the library. We cannot wonder that cataloging has fallen into most undeserved disrepute as a monotonous, grinding occupation involving some tedious routine, much petti-fogging and automatism unworthy of a real live woman's or man's efforts. Classification still retains some flavor, because one may gain reference knowledge or other useful insight from even a casual glance at a book.

The cataloger's professional attitude depends in a measure upon the value set upon the work by others. But it depends emphatically upon the cataloging librarian's estimate of his own efforts, their general and relative importance, their results. Experience seems to prove without doubt that a great deal of that knowledge by which a librarian's usefulness is measured, begins and ends with the art of cataloging. It is an art, the doing of which can be learned, but the philosophy of which develops only with personal growth toward the ideal. Describing a book accurately and adequately for a definite purpose certainly is an accomplishment worth striving for; if it is not worth doing passing well, no library work is of any value. The very keynote of the work is as democratic as the plan of the city directory where none is excluded because of rank or fortune. The catalog department is the one place in the library where all books are treated equally, without reference to their individual merits, described calmly and committed to the catalog to win such use and favor as they deserve.

While the work of cataloging is a routine effort depending for its efficiency upon the intelligent observance of a code of rules, the very intellectual character of this work should presuppose in the cataloger a *personal* method as a safeguard against monotony and drudgery. This can be indicated better than described. First and foremost, let it be remembered that

all rules for cataloging yet are in a preliminary and preparatory state, and that we are far from creating in the reader's mind an adequate picture of any book by simply recording the title, noting some of the most apparent physical and historical peculiarities of the book, and confiding to the world some subjects of which the book seems to treat. The cataloger should know that his art still is in a state of development; that many cataloging problems await a general solution,—that the ideal of full and adequate book-description still is a far and distant light. It always gives courage and buoyancy to know that we are carrying stones to a common temple; and certainly every day's work must satisfy any of us that we can work our problems and accumulate intelligence of common interest to all. Here the personal method should apply itself. If we carry out easily and cheerfully those rules which already have been formulated for general practice, we shall be able to reserve some effort for the problems which are still to be solved. We may carry the particular detail which engages our attention through the process of comparative study, until by observation and experiment we have surveyed it fully and succeeded, perhaps, in solving it, thus adding a trifle to the common store of professional knowledge and gaining the high joy felt by the pioneer in breaking new soil.

By the term personal method I do not mean a free, individual use and interpretation of cataloging rules, for each library is bound to demand a historical continuance in the methods of work it sustains, and this does not permit a free play of personal preferences. Furthermore, it is not contrary to freedom and independence to follow a system which, although the individual may chafe at certain inconveniences, represents a collective effort, historically fixed and a known efficiency. A personal method is *that economy of efficiency which draws the line between essential and unessential which lets the rule or regulation have its way in all ordinary questions, which wastes no effort in discussing futilities but bridles with alertness to new forms, important distinctions and rare opportunities.* There are some catalogers who seem incapable of anything but debating the distinction between illustrations and diagrams; who spend every grain of their energy upon the elaboration of impossible and misleading author and subject headings, collations and descriptive notes, plagiarizing information easily available

everywhere. In such cases, the "cataloger" is not the master of the catalog, but the catalog governs him—not as a cherished care of which he is proud, but as a burden. His mind may be perfectly serene as to the treatment of literature on apples until he runs up against the reports of a pomological society and realizes that he cannot use the subject heading "Apples—societies," and relapses into consternation, because he cannot be consistent. If of a literary bent he may remember with a sad feeling the young farmer in Eugene Field's story who bought an encyclopedia and looked up the subject of apples when they came and searched under "baby" when the baby caught the measles. He was referred to pomology and maternity, respectively, and growled because the volumes containing these letters had not yet appeared. George Eliot throws him into cold perspiration until, after having consulted every available source of information, he produces the following beautiful concoction:

Eliot, George, *pseud.*, i. e., Marian Evans, *afterwards* Cross, 1819-1880.

Cross, *Mrs.* Marian (Evans), *see* Eliot, George, *pseud.*, i. e., Marian Evans, *afterwards* Cross, 1819-1880.

Evans, Marian (Mrs. Cross), *see* Eliot, George, *pseud.*, i. e., Marian Evans, *afterwards* Cross, 1819-1880.

Small wonder that catalogers go into nervous prostration under the strain of the dictations of a supposedly harsh catalog which demands the distinction of being an encyclopedia of universal knowledge rather than a discreet guide to the library's resources of books.

Let us turn the leaf and consider how that inspiration which means well balanced power and mastery of required method, may be won.

One important source of inspiration to the cataloger is the library itself, the mass of books with their actual or potential value for public reference or enlightenment. The library may be small, sordid, commonplace, and the cataloger may despair of it, but this despair should relieve itself in an effort to build up the catalog all the more effectively. Analytical entries, or even a sort of indexing, will do wonders to increase the efficacy of a limited collection of books. If the library is deficient in modern, up-to-date books, the cataloger's duty consists in bringing to light all that is of actual value to the

community, according to the spirit of Mark Tapley, who grew more alert, the darker and drearier the prospects were. Not one of the little, out-dated, perhaps mismanaged libraries is indifferent, nor the library which lacks support,—for the *problems* are there; and problems turn up to be solved, not to be despaired of. The worse the catalog, the greater the necessity of renewing it. If one can do nothing with a small library and under adverse circumstances he had better not imagine that an easier life will make him either more efficient or more happy.

One very important matter—one, moreover, which touches upon the personal method aforesaid—is that the cataloger never should become *isolated*. The principle of specialization frequently isolates workers in different departments of even moderate-sized libraries. The cataloger may feel that his very work relegates him to a place out of touch with what is going on in the library. This isolation is not necessary. I admit that the average daily working period is too long for most employees in the modern library, but I contend also that whoever works strictly by the clock fails to have acquired the correct institutional spirit and attitude. This spirit demands that you reach out at all times and make certain of being in ready, sympathetic mental intercommunication with your surroundings. In a large library, an occasional extra hour or two spent in looking about, in studying the catalog, in exchanging opinions with colleagues, in the hundreds of ways offered by intellectual workers being housed under one roof, will assist materially to build up that *espirit de corps* without which we despair.

Again, there is a great satisfaction in doing justice to a book which partakes of the public service extended by the library. A good and useful book—any book in the true sense—will reward your efforts, perhaps by being worn out with use; or it may back up on you and remind you of some mistake in its treatment. Books respond in these ways almost as readily as human beings.

Nor are the human beings themselves slow in responding where the right word has been spoken. The cataloger always should consider himself in direct intercommunication with the reading public; should speak through his catalog, of the books, tersely and clearly, with the one object in mind of engaging the reader's attention. If he fails, it is not the fault of the public, it is the fault of him who has not spoken well enough,

advertised well enough, offered strongly enough the opportunity which it is his business to see in behalf of others.

In the large libraries all these conditions are emphasized and more complicated, but not different. There, the cataloger has the added advantage of finding the great books and of co-operating with persons who know them. The advantage to the cataloger of working in a large library lies chiefly in the wider range of view and in the greater historical outlook induced by the greater mass of books. On the other hand, the danger of isolation grows with the greater specialization,—and the isolation embodies the most significant source of discomfort of the cataloger. A wise organization will do all in its power to harmonize the different elements among the workers, by assigning some reference work, book selection, advertising, etc., to such as might suffer from the monotony of one continuously repeated effort.

It is possible that some of the ill repute of cataloging may arise from a fault of adjustment which is a common trait of many young librarians in these days of strenuous life. The library worker who follows the recognized and universally applauded course of professional training will acquire a college education, followed by a library school course,—and then, suddenly, *his education ceases;* he no longer reads professional literature, no longer feels the spur of a definite purpose, but plunges into work and is lost in it. Many and many a library worker who studies eagerly and with good results while at school, becomes indifferent to library science and library literature as soon as he lands in a position. Thenceforth he thinks of little else than his daily duties, and carries stones to no building but the cherished castle of his own success. Many and many of this type of library worker never read, far less study, a book, but fling themselves into work at that pace which kills, —which stifles the higher ambition and renders its slaves incapable of personal growth, philosophic view and ideal striving. Why go to the trouble and expense of a special education for librarianship, merely to toil strenuously for outward success and gain, when we know that the same amount of dynamic effort in other lines will produce far greater remuneration? Why seek library work at all, unless one strives toward the ideal which colored the lives of such men as Panizzi, Ebert, Justin Winsor, and Spofford? Rarely if ever do the executives of our

large libraries antagonize an effort toward personal growth and development in their subordinate associates; on the contrary, a ready and free sympathy is reached out to those who strive for higher things.

No library worker can succeed in the highest sense without being somewhat of a *studiosus perpetuus,* nor can he create harmony within himself without dreaming the healthy dream of high hope. Efficiency alone is as much a curse as knowledge alone. Only a handful of years ago men's time was of scant commercial value compared with its value today. But the woman or man is lost who thinks he has solved the great life problem of an occupation when he has succeeded in trading his time and work against a fair economic equivalent. The frequent changes in library staffs all over the country, and the rather numerous adventures in neurasthenia, prove that the few suggestions offered here are not entirely out of season. There is some need of a pastoral theology for library workers!

The problem which I have tried to discuss freely and without prejudice to any side, may be summed up in a simile. Years ago a man came out of a country of wild heather and fresh breezes to a great metropolis, where an unkind fate consigned him to a night's so-called rest in a large modern hotel which faced an open square. He went to his room, but could not sleep. He lay awake long, listening to the noises within the immense building and without, in the vast city surrounding him. Finally he arose, opened a window and looked out. There was the rush of sound in his ears, of clang and noise—but not one sound which he knew. He listened a long time. Then, of a sudden, he became all alive with attention. He heard something which he recognized. It was springtime, and from high above the city came the rush of swift wings and the honk of wild geese and other migratory birds which travel by night. He knew the sound of each new and different flock that came. None was visible, but they were there, and he felt grateful and at rest.

Such is in some respects the position of the worker in a modern library. The din and rush of the routine are around him, and he responds with sullenness or cynicism, or becomes apathetic and automatic—unless he listens and reaches out for the higher, but often hidden, symbols of freedom and joy, and listens for the chorus of gleeful and jubilant praise which is

everywhere to be heard by him who listens earnestly. And then he will turn to his work with a morning face, glad that he is there, his work awaiting him, *his* work, because duty alone does not call him, nor the reward, nor anybody's praise, but the approval of his own conscience.

ACCESSIONING

A MODEL ACCESSION CATALOG

In the first volume of the Library Journal, Mr. Dewey gives the method of accessioning agreed upon by the A.L.A. Cooperation Committee to which was intrusted the task of drawing up a model accession catalog for the Woburn Public Library. In an article on the Accession Department, written for the volume entitled "Papers Prepared for the World's Library Congress," 1896. Mr. Gardner M. Jones of the Salem Public Library states that the form drawn up by this committee was one of the first subjects considered and that their deliberations resulted in the publication of the A.L.A. standard accession book. The rules are given below with the reasons for each point brought out. Biographical data concerning Mr. Dewey will be founded in Volume I of this series.

The first of all records to be filled, and by no means the last in importance to the faithful librarian, is the book of accessions. This is the history of the growth of the collection. To this he turns for final reference in doubtful cases. Here is the complete story of each book, fully told, but in the most compact form possible. In fact, the accession-book properly kept up is the librarian's official indicator for his whole collection. Each line is a separate pigeon-hole, in which not exactly the book, but the condensed facts about the book, are placed. Thence they are never removed; they are not loaned, or condemned, or sent to the binder, or lost. The card is never misplaced, the entry does not mysteriously disappear, a new edition never supersedes. Once written, "it is enough," until the paper grows thin with wear and the binding crumbles with age or the ink-lines entirely fade out of ken. He may turn to his book of accessions to learn *what,* and *where,* and *when,* and *whence,* and *how much,* and feel sure that he will find the answer. Oh! the luxury of a good accession-catalogue written up to date and

reasonably free from errors! It has an odor of mathematical exactness unknown to any other catalogue. Its statements are founded on a rock. It is the *editio princeps*.

For this book various plans have been recommended, but there is so much agreement in most of them that it would seem that experience had shown what was really needed.

In arranging for its new era of prosperity, brought about by the magnificent Winn Legacy, Mr. Champney, of the Woburn Public Library, determined that he would adopt for his accession-catalogue the very best form, if it were possible to find out what that form was. To this end a number of librarians were consulted, and their combined ideas and suggestions were submitted to the Co-operation Committee, under whose direction the book of which we speak as a "model accession-catalogue" was made.

It seems hard to suggest any improvement in the volume left by request at the Boston office of the JOURNAL; and for the benefit of those interested a detailed description will be given.

The book is 35 x 28 cm. outside measurement. The ruling of the page is of 30 lines, just one centimeter apart, which gives a handsome appearance, with ample room for interlining, should that ever be found necessary. The entries of course run across both pages, it being much more convenient in reference than to use two lines on the same page for each entry. The down lines and width of the columns for each heading are as follows: ACCESSION, 4½ cm., column ruled off by a single red line; CLASS, 1½ cm., single red line; BOOK, 1 cm., red; VOL., 1 cm., double line red and blue, thus distinctly marking off the series of numbers from the author, title, and imprint, which immediately follow. The AUTHOR column is 6 cm., and is ruled off by a very faint blue line, which will be noticed only when looked for, but still it is sufficient to guide the copyist in making the entries. The TITLE occupies the rest of the first page, 14 cm. A space of 2 cm. is ruled off by single red lines for the space wasted at the hinge, and the second page begins with the imprint entries: PLACE, 4 cm.; DATE, 2 cm.; SIZE, 2 cm.; each having a single red-line ruling. The imprint entries are followed by the double line, blue and red, like that on the first page. Thus author, title, and imprint are distinctly marked off from the library numbers on one side, and from the remarks as to the binding, source, cost, etc., on the other.

BINDING follows SIZE with a 1½ cm. column, red line; SOURCE has 6 cm., followed by the double red lines enclosing COST, 1½ and 1 cm. columns. The page is completed by the broad 10 cm. column headed REMARKS. For the better understanding of this system, a transcript of the page headings is given below. The limitations of the page made it impossible to preserve the absolute proportions, but the exact measurement is bracketed below.

[*Left-hand page.*]

ACCESSION	CLASS	BOOK	VOL.	AUTHOR	TITLE	
[4½ Cm]	[1½ Cm]	[1 Cm]	[1 Cm]	[6 Cm]	[14 Cm]	

[*Right-hand page.*]

	PLACE	DATE	SIZE	BIND'G	SOURCE	COST		REMARKS
	[4 Cm]	[2 Cm]	[2 Cm]	[1½ Cm]	[6 Cm]	1½	1	[10 Cm]

The headings are noteworthy for their conciseness, still the single words given seem to express perfectly what is meant. "Title" is as good as "title of the book"; "place," as "place of publication"; "vol.," as "number of the vol."; "accession 8743," or whatever it may be, as "accession-number 8743."

For the accommodation of those desiring actual sheets for more careful examination, extra copies were printed, and can be had at the office of the JOURNAL. They cost, rolled and stamped for the mail, ten cents per package, and will be mailed on application. The detailed rules for filling out this catalogue, with explanations, will be of interest, as they are not elsewhere to be found in print.

Accession-Rules

1. Enter each book on the accession-catalogue immediately after it is collated and found to agree with order-book and bill.

The accession-book, being a record of additions, should be kept strictly up to date, as much as the cash account of a bank should be balanced daily. If more books come in than can be written up at the time, under no circumstances should any volume be removed from the room until properly recorded on the accession-book. When they once bear the accession-number, it is easy to get at other facts, but a book without this guide is very easily lost or confused with books from other sources or coming in on other dates. Librarians of business experience will get the best idea of this rule by considering this catalogue their invoice-book. As a package is opened, it must be collated with order-book and bill to see that it is what was ordered, that the price is right, and that the book is complete and in proper condition. Then, if correct, it should be entered *at once* on the invoice or accession book. If incorrect or imperfect, it should not be entered at all, as it is not *received* into the library.

2. Give a consecutive number on a line of the accession-book and on the reverse of the title-page of each volume received, and never assign the same number to another volume or book, even if the original be lost, sold, exchanged, or condemned, and an exact duplicate put in its place.

Volumes, and not books or lots, should have the accession-number. The practice of numbering works, in however many volumes they may chance to be, always leads to confusion. The last number should show how many volumes the library has received from the begining; but this is a less important consideration. Books are, many of them, issued in parts and at intervals, something like periodicals. If an effort is made to number books rather than volumes, a source of trouble is found in the first volume received in continuation; *e.g.,* v. 4 comes in to-day and should be numbered 1347; but v. 1, 2, and 3 are numbered 975. That entry must be found and altered. When v. 5 comes in, it must be again altered, and so on *ad finem.* In assigning *book-numbers* or *shelf-marks* for the catalogue, by which readers call for what they want, books, and not volumes, should be numbered. In the accession-catalogue *volumes* and not *books,* should bear the number.

The rule calls for a separate line for each volume, and many will criticise this as unnecessary. Some cataloguers go so far as to put sets of fifty or sixty volumes all on one line. The only gain is a little paper; for the apparent economy of labor will prove no economy in the end. The entries, if the same, can be *dittoed* with labor so trifling that it does not deserve mention, for it has to be done only once in the whole history of book and library. A single volume of the accession-book contains 10,000 lines, thus affording pigeon-holes for 10,000 distinct volumes. After protracted trials of various plans, it seems the best way to assign one of these pigeon-holes or lines across the book to each volume contained in the collection. Then, in addition to the original entries, any fact concerning that volume can be entered and found with the easiest possible reference.

A librarian will see the advantage of the rule which assigns a given line to a given volume, and forbids its use for any other than that identical volume. There is no trouble then in recording different titles, imprints, cost, source, binding, etc., for the different volumes of a set. If any volume is lost, or re-bound, or requires any note or comment to preserve its history and record of its present state, the way is perfectly simple. If two or more volumes are put upon a single line, confusion is sure to arise sooner or later, and the simple rule of a line to a volume is decidedly the best.

The rule forbids the use of the assigned number-line for any other than the identical copy. In many libraries it is customary in replacing a lost book to give it the same accession-number as the original. While this is very convenient and desirable for the *book*-numbers, it is all wrong for the *accession*-number. The lost book may come back even after a hundred years, and some day a wearisome effort to make accounts agree will disclose the fact that there are *two* books bearing the same accession-number. A book put in the library to-day in place of one lost five years ago was added *today,* and not at the time of the first purchase. It *is, e.g.,* the 1347th volume added to the library, and is *to take the place* of 975, which some one has lost. This number as soon as assigned should be written on the reverse of the title. Here it can always be found, and when the book-plate is put in, the number will be readily found and copied. When the book is rebound, the number is preserved for immediate reference after the book comes back from the binder.

The reverse of the title is the most convenient place after the title itself, where it would in a measure deface the book. Custom has also fixed on this place for the accession-number.

In writing the numbers on the catalogue, economy and convenience are both served by writing only the last one or two digits except at the top of each page and perhaps for each 10th number. The page of 30 lines has the full number at the top, and on the 10th and 20th lines, so the abbreviated number is more quickly written and more easily found for reference than than the full numbers on each line. At a little extra expense the numbers could be printed in advance, as each line holds just one volume.

3. Give the current date, year, month, and day, before the first entry of each day.

This date is almost always written at the extreme left of the page, just preceding the accession-number. The model book described, having an unusually large space for this number, leaves ample room for the one entry of date each day, and it is better to give this in the number column, where only one entry will be made for each lot of books received, rather than use an entire column, enlarging the book accordingly. Some libraries find it more convenient to give the date of the reception of each lot in the centre of the first blank line, thus separating each day's accession from the preceding and following. The book as ruled is adapted to either method, and there is little choice. The first must be used if the book be numbered in advance, as it would be impossible to leave blanks in just the right places. It is recommended in either case that the year, month, and day be given in the margin above all the rulings at the left of each left-hand page.

4. Give the author's name and title, as in the brief-title finding-index.

Space allows only a brief title, and other facts are given with so much fulness that there is no difficulty in identifying the book. If the work is anonymous, the space headed AUTHOR should be left blank and filled in when the authorship is discovered. The line separating author and title is so very faint that it will be seen only when looked for. It guides the copyist in making the titles line accurately, one under the other. In the case of books having a very long author's name, this faint blue line

is simply disregarded, but in most entries there will be a little space between the author and the beginning of the title.

5. Give the imprint, PLACE, DATE, and SIZE, in accordance with rules for full titles.

This requires year of copyright when different from year of publication. The line headed DATE being wide enough for six figures, this important item specifying the real date of publication can be added. If no date is given with the imprint, the date of copyright is preceded by *cop.* The size column is also of extra width, so that it would be possible to give the number of pages; *e.g.*, 372 p. O, or all the sizes (binding, paper, and type), as well as fold, in case it should be desirable. Except in rare books, the size-letter will be sufficient.

6. Give the binding, indicating half binding by prefixing ½, and using here as in all the entries the uniform library abbreviations.

7. Under SOURCE give the name of the donor, if presented; the name of the fund, if purchased from the income of a special fund; or the name of the firm or library agents of whom purchased, if from the general fund.

Some will prefer to give the name of the supplying agents in all cases, prefixing the initials of the fund in the second case. it would seem well worth the entry of at least the initials of the agent of whom purchased. The funds of each library are so well known that the initials are ample, and therefore the column for SOURCE allows room for both agent and fund.

8. Under COST give in dollars and cents the actual cost of the book, including exchange on books bought abroad.

The ruling for pounds, shillings, and pence used in some libraries will hardly find many advocates. So few books among the mass in the library will be billed in that way that it seems a great waste of space to devote three whole columns to these headings. Even in these rare cases convenience requires that the cost should be given in ordinary denominations, so that a moment's time will tell an inquirer the cost of any book which he may wish to price.

It is an excellent plan to mark the cost of each book in some conventional place, as the package is collated with the bills. From this place it can be copied on to the accession-book, and often will be found of great convenience in determining value

without consulting the record or bills. The cost written in the inner corner of some special page agreed upon in each library would serve as a means of identifying books that might have their plates removed, or their covers taken off in binding, or by accident or by design where theft is intended. When several volumes are purchased at once, the cost of the series should be given opposite the first entered, followed by a note indicating the number of volumes included. *E.g.*, v. 4, 5 and 6 of some work come in together and cost together $13.44. Instead of dividing this up and entering $4.48 against each volume, make the entry against the first, that is v. 4., in this way: $13.40 (3 v.). Or, still better, connect the lines of the different volumes by a bracket, and write the cost against the centre. These items of cost should be carefully given, and the accession-book thus becomes for all practical purposes the invoice-book.

9. Under REMARKS indicate the re-binding, sale, loss, exchange, withdrawal as duplicate, binding in with another volume, or any change or disposition.

The preceding entries tell what the book was when it came into the library. REMARKS should tell of any changes, and of the final disposition in case the book is no longer in its accustomed place. Few libraries have followed this rule, but it requires less labor than might at first be supposed, and will be found to save more than it costs. When books come in from the bindery, it is a very brief matter to open to their number and note the new dress in which they appear. Then if a volume be lost and the reader wishes to pay for it, there is a means of knowing whether it was in paper as first purchased for 25 cents, or in half morocco as rebound at an added cost of $1. The accession-book is the book of final reference for all these technical facts, and they appear on no other catalogue. Certainly the efficient librarian should be able *somewhere* to refer to every thing of the kind, and no other record offers so great advantages for this as does the book under consideration.

The location number given in the accession-book will be to many an innovation. Its desirability has never been questioned, but the frequent changes in this number as ordinarily used rendered its satisfactory use well-nigh impossible. An increasing number of libraries are, however, assigning permanent numbers to their books, so that they may be called for from the oldest edition of the catalogue as readily as from the latest. With

such a system it is a great convenience to be able to refer directly to the shelf where the book may be found without consulting intermediate catalogues. It is also convenient to glance down the columns of numbers and see in what proportion the various departments, as indicated by those numbers, are receiving additions. The decision of those consulted was without exception in favor of putting in columns for this purpose, to be used if practicable, and it is believed that every library will sooner or later find it desirable to so use them.

After consultation with librarians using several different systems for numbering their books, it was decided to put the columns and headings CLASS, BOOK, and VOLUME immediately after the accession-number column. Some libraries may be so numbered, or liable to so frequent changes in their book-numbers or press-marks that it will be undesirable to give any thing more than the volume-number, which remains fixed. Others will give the press-marks in pencil, so that they can be readily altered. The columns can be left blank if the system does not admit of their satisfactory use. They are of great value to those libraries that have a book-number which is not liable to frequent changes. Libraries giving alcove, range, and shelf instead of class, will enter this number in the first column, for which the heading CLASS was chosen, for its brevity and applicability to almost any system. Nearly all libraries agree in using a book-number between this and the volume-number. Where the alphabetical arrangement is followed wholly or in part, these columns will be needed to indicate the words which determine the location of the book.

In the volume column, two volumes bound in one would be entered 1 and 2, 3 and 4, etc. One volume bound in two parts would be entered 1.1, 1.2, etc.

A little inspection of the catalogue will show the improvement over the common arrangement which places the *volume* with the other imprint entries on the second page. As here arranged, the volume immediately precedes the author, and at the first glance it is apparent what the entry is *e.g.*, v. 47, Harper's Magazine, is vastly more convenient than to follow across an entire page to the ordinary place of the volume, with the attendant danger, both in entering and consulting, of getting on to the line above or below, and thus making serious blunders. Practical

use of the catalogue will convince those doubtful of the utility of the change.

But a still stronger reason for placing the volume where it is, is found in the fact that the volume-number is an essential part of the call-number or press-mark by which the book is found. The inconvenience of having the first part of this number at the beginning of the long line of entries and the last part at the other end is manifest.

This arrangement gives, then, three distinct matters on the double page. First, the LIBRARY NUMBERS assigned to the book by each individual library—*Accession, Class, Book,* and *Volume* number—preceded by the date of receipt. These are ruled off by a double red and blue line.

Then come the *Author, Title,* and *Imprint* proper, which belong alike to every book of the edition regardless of the library. These are also ruled off by the double line. Lastly comes a class of entries which might be called together REMARKS—the *Binding, Source, Cost,* and *Remarks*—all of which are matters pertaining to the special copy in hand, but not necessarily to other copies of the same book.

It is very desirable that the volumes of the catalogue contain even thousands, preferably five or ten, as it so much facilitates reference as the collection grows, and the number of accession-books increases. If each is made to contain just 5000 v. the librarian knows that 4999 is in v. 1, and that 5001 is in v. 2, and so on. Otherwise, even though the first and last number be lettered on the back, the wrong volume is often taken up. The volume described contains 10,200 lines, and, bound in heavy Russia leather, is 7 cm. thick. Another form which has been preferred by many libraries, is of 340 p., bound in half Turkey morocco, and contains 5100 lines.

The librarian who keeps an accession-book on the plan described finds himself well repaid. It will be in constant requisition, the final authority to which will be referred all doubtful questions regarding the past history or present state of any one or all of his children, for so we might term his books.

SHELF-LISTS VS. ACCESSION CATALOGS

Justin Winsor was the first in the field to use accession information in his shelf list, thus combining the two forms of records. He established this plan in the Jamaica Plain and South End branch libraries, Boston, and afterward installed it in the Harvard College Library. Brief biographical data will be found in Volume IV of this series.

I take issue with the Supply Department in the desirability of distinct accession catalogues. I had experience with one for ten years at Boston, and was often troubled with the amount of labor required to keep it up—it took one attendant's whole time latterly. It was a device bequeathed to me by my predecessor and I was reluctant to displace it; but in all that period I never knew it resorted to for information that could not just as well have been put on the shelf-lists. Indeed the shelf-list, or the book in question, or the card catalogue—usually the first —must always primarily be consulted as an index to the accession catalogue when any question as to the history of a particular book comes up. Of course, by giving this catalogue up—as I had begun to do before I left Boston, and I believe since then it has been further disused—I lost the ability to know just the order in which all books came into the library, a piece of knowledge, however, that I never once required to know. I also lost the record in one place of the titles of any single gift of books, when they were of a miscellaneous character, but I do not remember of being at a loss for such record. On the contrary, if A. B. was a numismatician, and was in the habit of giving books in his department to the library at intervals, the accession catalogue would not, unless it was indexed, afford a list of their titles, while the shelf-list would, or approximately so, the library being classified. Almost all the questions arising about a particular book can be more readily answered by inscribing the required information on the shelf-list, with not more than one half the labor, since about one half the

writing is duplicated in the two. The same form of combined shelf-list and accession catalogue, which I devised for the Jamaica Plain and South End branches—the last departments started during my superintendency at Boston—I have adopted at Harvard, giving up here the Record-book (accession catalogue) which had been in use previously. The headings of this new shelf-list are for the left-hand page: *Book-number* (*i. e.*, order on shelf); *no. of vols.; title; place;* and *date.* And for the right-hand page: *Sign; date of accession; source* (*i.e.*, whence received); *fund or gift; remarks.* There are thirty-two lines on the page. A title, not volume, is given to a line.

It will be observed that where both records are kept the writing on the left-hand page, as indicated above, is common to both, and has to be duplicated.

The shelf-number of course answers all the purpose of the accession number as a link of reference, and the latter is not used—another item of labor saved.

Of course a class-list, where relative location is used, is equally effective as a shelf-list for the combination, so far as the regular purchases of the library go; the file of bills or invoices shows the growth of the library in its chronological aspect; and a separate record of gifts—if one is kept—completes the record.

My opinion, then, derived from ten years' experience in the library of the widest range of perplexities of any in the country, is that the pure accession catalogue demands an amount of labor which produces no corresponding advantages, and that the items of value on it can be far more conveniently preserved on the shelf-list or class-list.

SHELF-LISTS VS. ACCESSION CATALOGS

The author, William F. Poole, then librarian of the Chicago Public Library, defends the use of the accession book, pointing out the objections to the method used by Mr. Winsor, described in the preceding article.

A short biography of Mr. Poole will be found in Volume III of this series.

I do not agree with Mr. Winsor in his recommendation to dispense with accession catalogues, and to make the usual accession entries in the shelf-lists. He would abolish the accession catalogue because of the amount of labor required to keep it up. I would retain it, because of the amount of labor it saves because it fully answers the purpose of an original and permanent record of the accessions and growth of the library, which his plan does not secure, and because of other reasons which will appear as we proceed. On the ground of convenience of reference and economy of labor, I know of no device in library economy I should more reluctantly give up than the accession catalogue.

It serves (1) as a transcript (put into bibliographical form) of all the bills and invoices of books purchased, the original bills being filed with the treasurer's accounts as vouchers for money paid out (2) as a chronological record of the growth of the library, from which the monthly and yearly reports are made (3) as a record of the donations to the library and of the donors, from which the yearly report is made (4) as an authentic record of the history of every book that comes into the library.

Mr. Winsor proposes a separate record of gifts—"if one is kept"—an expression which indicates that he questions the importance of such a record, and to show the growth of the library by the file of bills or invoices. American invoices are usually made out in such a crude and informal way that they soon become unintelligible and worthless for bibliographical pur-

poses. I cannot conceive how the permanent records of a library, good for a hundred years hence, can be kept on the plan proposed by Mr. Winsor, or without a greater expenditure of labor than he has considered. There must be some defect in a plan of library economy that will not stand the test of experience for a long term of years.

The accession catalogue is a permanent record for all time. Nothing can be added to its past entries, and nothing taken from them. The shelf-lists, in which it is proposed to make the accession entries, are temporary records. They are soon worn out by use, and are constantly in process of change. At each rearrangement of the library, or of a class, they are wholly superseded by new shelf-lists. What then becomes of the accession entries? They must be copied; for Mr. Winsor certainly would not leave them uncopied in the discarded shelf-lists. During the past five years all the shelf-lists of the Chicago Public Library have been once renewed, and several of them two and three times. From 1856 to 1869 the department of American History in the Boston Athenæum was, on account of its large accessions, rearranged three or four times, and new shelf-lists made each time. In rapidly-growing libraries the frequent renewal of the shelf-lists is necessary. If it be a burden worthy of complaint to make the accession entries once in the accession catalogue, how much greater burden of perpetual copying shall we entail on ourselves and our successors by adopting Mr. Winsor's plan? My shelf-lists are already so bulky as to be cumbersome. It is undesirable to increase their size twofold.

As a temporary scheme of saving labor, I think Mr. Winsor's plan defective. The accession entries are to be made in the shelf-lists—when? Not until the book has been assigned to its proper classification and place. This is the last act in the process of preparing books for the shelves. Some years before Mr. Winsor's connection with the Boston Public Library, I was walking through it, with Prof. Jillson, the assistant librarian, and observing on a table a mass of books, perhaps a thousand volumes, I asked what they were. Prof. Jillson replied that they were new books to which places had not been assigned on the shelves. The assignment of books to their proper classification and places was his duty, and he had been so pressed with other work that the new books had accumulated. For-

tunately the new shelf-list plan had not then been adopted. The books, as they had been entered in the accession catalogue, could readily be classified, assigned to their places, and entered in the shelf-lists. But to supply for the shelf-lists, on Mr. Winsor's plan, the proper accession entries, date of reception, of whom procured, cost, etc., *hic labor, hoc opus est!* Each book must be hunted out separately through a maze of a dozen invoices. A more laborious and dreary task than this can hardly be imagined. The labor is not in writing, but in finding out what to write. It may be said, in reply, that new books ought not to accumulate, but should be prepared for the shelves and located immediately. Books, however, will necessarily accumulate when several large invoices are received about the same time. Our accessions at this library in one year were more than 21,000 volumes. They had to be taken care of with the aid of only one assistant in the cataloguing department. They were taken care of; but the work could not have been done without the labor-saving quality of the accession catalogue. Books unlocated sometimes accumulated in a larger mass than I saw at the Boston Public Library; but they were soon worked off, as we had none of the accession details to look up and record. That record made as soon as the books are checked off and arranged from the original invoices, and when all the accession details were before the cataloguer, takes but little time. While proving all new plans and appliances, I think it is well to "hold fast that which is good."

NEW INVOICE METHOD

The following paragraphs, taken from the Annual Report of the Springfield, Mass. City Library Association (1901) describe the "bill method" of accessioning. John Cotton Dana was librarian at the time this system was introduced. A biographical sketch of Mr. Dana appears in Volume I of this series.

Beginning May 7th the library will adopt a new method of invoicing new books and other acquisitions. No accession book or register is to be kept. The bills of any given firm during any one month are to receive as a determining mark one of the days of that month, and the year, and the bills from the same firm receive consecutive numbers. This date and number, standing for the bill of a certain firm, with such other marks as seem advisable, are to be placed on the margin of the fourth page after the title-page. This group, of date and month, called the accession mark, is to be written on the shelf-list and on the face of the official author cards as was the old accession number. By means of it reference can be made from catalog or shelf list to the group of bills of any month in which any book may be found. This is sufficient for the few occasions on which reference to a bill is necessary. The price of the book and the source are added to the accession mark and to the shelf list card.

The original bills for books are kept in the library, statements only are sent to the treasurer. In the case of gifts a "gift slip" identical in nature with the bills is made out and treated as if it were a bill. In the case of periodicals that are added to the catalog after being bound a similar "periodical slip" is made.

SHELF LISTS

In the Special Report of Public Libraries published by the Bureau of Education in 1876, Mr. William F. Poole describes the method then in vogue as follows:

The shelf lists are an inventory of the contents of each case, and hence of the entire library. They give the shelf number of each work, the author, a brief title, the number of volumes, and number of copies if more than one. If the library be large it is well to keep the shelf list of each case in a separate book, or, if on loose sheets, in portfolios or "binders." If the library be small, they may, when completed, be bound in one or more volumes. The paper will be ruled with a head-line, above which will be written the case letter, and perpendicular lines for the several particulars which have been named. The numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, etc., will first be written down the page, one number on each line; and such numbers as have, for the time, no books to represent them will be left blank for future additions. Only very brief titles need be inserted in the shelf lists, with the surnames and initials of the authors.

SHELF LISTS ON CARDS

The first mention of the use of a "shelf-card" appears in an article on "A Combined System for Arranging and Numbering"; by J. Schwartz of the Mechanics Library, New York City, published in the third volume of The Library Journal.

Jacob Schwartz was the librarian of the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York City, resigning his position in 1900 after a service of more than thirty years. He was a pioneer in many branches of library service, having early devised and elaborated a practical system of classification.

The shelf-card is used as a substitute for the old-fashioned clumsy shelf-lists, and consists of a card of the same size as the one recommended in the JOURNAL for cataloging. On the one side there is a brief entry of the class, number, author, and title of the book, and on the reverse side are entered the accession numbers of the various volumes and duplicates of each work. These cards are arranged in the order of the books on the shelves, and it is easy at any time to interpolate additional works and to add duplicates. If one card should not be sufficient to contain all the duplicates, a second can be used, which may be lettered No. 2. These cards are much more easily manipulated than shelf lists, and require much less time in the periodical examinations or taking of stock, besides allowing room for definite interpolation, whether of new works or duplicates.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF SHELF LISTS

A paper on "The Shelf List" presented by Esther Crawford at the annual meeting of the Ohio Library Association, held at Put-in-Bay in 1899, and giving reasons pro and con for the use of bound volumes, sheets, and cards for this purpose.

Esther Crawford was born in Calhoun, Iowa, in 1865, and is a graduate of Iowa State College (1887), and also of the New York State Library School (1896). She has been librarian of the Public Library of Sioux City, Iowa; assistant librarian of Adelbert College, Cleveland, O.; instructor in the Iowa Summer School for Librarians, and in the Library School of Western Reserve University; and has held positions on the library staff of the Public Library of Dayton, O., and of the University of Nebraska. She is at present connected with the Editorial Division of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States Department of Commerce at Washington.

Mr. President: In this paper I shall include both shelf-list and inventory, which naturally go together.

What is a shelf-list? It is a list of all the books in the library, arranged in exactly the order in which those books are classified and should stand on the shelves.

What are its uses? 1) As a check-list for inventory or stock-taking. 2) As a check-list for assigning book numbers to new books to prevent duplication of the call number. 3) As a brief subject catalog of books, generally for official use only; but it may be used by or for the public as a substitute for the subject catalog, with the classification index. 4) As a help in classifying new books; that is, if you have a book which may well be classified under one, two, three or four subjects, consult your shelf-list to see what you have done in the past with

similar books and put this book with that group, instead of in another class away from the books with which it is related. 5) As a guide in book-purchase, to learn the existing scope of the library in any one class before buying.

What are the various forms of shelf-lists? 1) Bound volumes. 2) Sheets; that is, one sheet for each class or for each three or four classes, if your library is not large nor likely to grow rapidly. 3) Cards; one for each work.

What are the relative values of the three forms? In order to estimate their value I have selected the following criteria: 1) economy in making shelf-list; 2) convenience in using shelf-list; 3) its compactness; 4) its completeness to date; 5) accuracy of statement; 6) the growth in any given class in a specified time; 7) danger from loss or misplacement in any part of the record.

Applying these criteria to the various forms, we shall try to find the form justified by them.

The bound volume; this is usable only with books arranged in fixed location. In the evolution of the shelf-list, to follow the evolution in classifying and shelving books, the bound volume has been replaced by sheets and the sheets are gradually being replaced by cards.

For books shelved in relative location the problem is then reduced to the question of whether the sheet or the card shelf-list is of most value when judged by the foregoing criteria.

1) Economy in making the shelf-list. If all the work is done by hand or typewriter, the sheets and cards are about equally easy to write. If done by hectograph or other duplicating process, the card is immeasurably more economic, requiring only the time necessary to lay it down on the hectograph and take it up again.

2) Convenience in use. Sheets and cards are about equal. Each may be carried to the shelves with equal ease in taking inventory. If the cards are kept in single trays they have the advantage of always being in order while sheets rarely express the exact order for the books which are added since the original writing. Furthermore, missing books can more easily be noted in cards than in sheets, by standing cards on end, rendering them conspicuous, where sheets would require turning for place and running down the pencil checks.

3) Compactness. Sheets have the advantage.

4) Completeness to date. Sheets, however well planned,

will fill up in the various classes and require rewriting, first for one class, then another, the frequency for each varying according to the growth of the library. Every rewriting adds to the work of the library force. Cards once made never need to be rewritten. They always fit into their correct relative location at once, no matter how many books are added in a given class. Hence the manifest economy of cards both in time and in stock used.

5) Growth of the library in any given class in a specified time. Sheets have the advantage in being able to show this at a glance until rewritten, when they show growth only after that time. Cards can be made to tell this growth by running through the collection in a given class, having in mind the accession number which marks the limit of the old growth and observing what new accession numbers occur on each card. The Dayton public library obviates this by having its accession book made with tabulated footings showing the number of volumes added to the various great classes from page to page.

6) Accuracy in statement. Cards have the decided advantage, for, in the frequent rewritings necessary with sheets, it is almost impossible to avoid making an occasional error or omission which will seriously vitiate the value of your shelf-list as an inventory guide. With the duplicating process the danger of error in cards becomes nothing, if the original catalog card is correct.

7) The danger of loss or misplacement of parts of the record. Sheets are popularly supposed to have an advantage over cards, as being too large to be easily lost or misplaced. Of course any loss whatever would be an extremely serious thing in the inventory record; but from personal trial of the matter I am convinced that, with due care the danger of losing cards is more a bugaboo than a reality.

Conclusions: In each of the seven criteria for deciding value, cards have an equal or added advantage compared with sheets, except in respect to compactness. This is such a very minor matter when weighed against economy of time and stock, accuracy and ease of use, that I can safely advise a librarian never to use anything but cards in a shelf-list. In fact, in reclassifying an old library, while the books are still in circulation, it is absolutely impossible to use sheets during the process.

What items are included on a shelf-list record? 1) Author's

surname, with initials only when needed to distinguish from a similar name in the same class. 2) Briefest possible form of title taken from title-page. 3) No imprint. 4) Class number, book number, and copy number always. 5) Accession number always, as a final identification in case of error or omission in book number, volume, or copy number.

Most excellent samples and rules for a shelf-list, both on sheets and on cards, will be found in Simplified Library School Rules published in vol. 4 of Library Notes, 1898, costing $1.

Stock taking or inventory, the natural reason of a shelf-list, is the locating or accounting for each volume ever owned by the library. What is its use? 1) The discovery of lost books. 2) The discovery of misplaced books. 3) The discovery of mistaken markings on books.

How frequently should an inventory be taken? It may be taken once a year; it may be continuous; in many large libraries it is taken only at long intervals.

What are the best methods of invoicing? 1) Messengers revise the shelves before beginning invoice; they should be directed to return all the books coming in during the inventory period to some designated place for invoice stamp. 2) Two people should work together, one reading the shelves and stamping each volume there with the invoice date, the other reading the shelf-list. 3) Read from the shelves to the shelf-list, taking the books in order as found on the shelves, after the messenger has revised the arrangement. 4) Books having mistakes in their numbering are laid out. 5) Missing books are indicated in the shelf-list, either by checking sheet with leadpencil or by turning cards on end. 6) After finishing the shelves of any one class, before taking up the next class, go at once to the loan desk and return shelves and stamp off any books indicated as not found at the shelves; do not count a book in regular circulation as invoiced until it is returned and is stamped. 7) In case other records are kept,—that is—books at the bindery, compare with these and check the book to be returned for invoice. 8) Occasionally afterward, go over the shelves for any books which have been returned by oversight or otherwise without being stamped for invoice. 9) After a stated time, say six weeks, make a separate list of books still missing; keep up the occasional comparison with the shelves, circulation record, and delinquent record until the end of the year, when the books still missing may be marked as "Lost."

10) If you do not stamp books with invoice date, you may check up your shelf-list as "Book accounted for," for such books as you find a record of in circulation, bindery, or any other record of books out. However, this neither is absolutely accurate nor does it give future evidence of past invoice or failure to invoice.

INVENTORY

EXAMINATION OF THE LIBRARY

William F. Poole contributed the chapter on "The Organization and Management of Public Libraries" found in the Special Report on American Libraries printed by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876, and the last topic considered by him was the taking of an inventory. His advice is in line with present-day customs.

A sketch of Dr. Poole appears in Volume III of this series.

Once a year, at least, the library should be thoroughly examined by comparing the books on the shelves with the shelf lists, noting every missing book, and later accounting for the absent volumes, so far as can be done. It was formerly the custom to call in the books, and to close the library for two or three weeks while the examination was going on. The closing of the library is a serious inconvenience to the public, and is not necessary for the purpose of the examination. By going over the shelves while the books are in circulation, noting by shelf marks such volumes as are out, and repeating the examination several times at intervals of a week, the list of books not found will be greatly reduced. The binder's schedule and delinquent list in the mean time will be examined, and, finally, the slips on which books not returned are charged. The same results will thus be secured as if the books had been called in and the library closed.

Before the examination is begun the books should be dusted, the shelves cleaned with a wet sponge, and the books arranged in their proper order. The dusting of books may be done by slapping two volumes together smartly two or three times. Never dust the tops of books by using a brush or cloth, which drives the dust into the book, whereas the smart concussion described disengages the dust from the leaves, and the book retains its clean and fresh appearance. The tops of books

which are cleaned by brushing and rubbing, as is commonly done by servants, have a grimed and soiled look, and the gilding is soon destroyed.

THE INVENTORY

A practical paper printed in The Wisconsin Library Bulletin and written by Helen Turvill, with the special needs of the librarian of the small library in mind. The closing paragraph, relating to the inventory of city property, is especially significant.

Helen Turvill was born in 1887 in Madison, Wis., where she received her education, graduating from the University of Wisconsin in 1906, and from the Wisconsin Library School in 1908. For the next two years she held the position of assistant, and from 1910 to 1922 she was instructor in cataloging and library economy in the Library School, serving also as field visitor for the Wisconsin State Library Commission.

Inventory is a matter that is vexing the soul of librarians at this season of the year, but it is as necessary to the proper up-keep of the library as spring house cleaning, with which it is often compared, is to the household. Perhaps a few hints and suggestions in regard to the taking of inventory will not be amiss.

Some may have doubted the need of an inventory for a library. No one, however, questions the necessity of a daily reading of the shelves to keep the books in order. Does not this answer? it is asked. But at no time will all our books be upon the shelves, and we hope that most of them will seldom stay long in their places, but remain constantly in circulation. Accordingly, if our books are being used as we want them to be, we cannot tell by ever so careful a reading of the shelves, whether some are missing.

It would be a very shiftless business man, who went on from year to year without ever taking account of stock and finding just what he had on hand, and if a library is to be conducted on business principles, it should take an inventory of its books once a year. In many cities, each department is

required to make an inventory each year of all property belonging to the city. As a city institution it is manifestly our duty as librarians to be able to render a similar account of the city property entrusted to our care. In order that no criticisms may arise later, a librarian immediately upon her appointment should take an inventory in order to ascertain whether the records are correct at the start.

The best time to take the annual inventory is in May or June, before the close of the fiscal year,—first, because the statistics that the inventory will give are needed for the annual report; and, second, because there is less reference and school work at this time and a larger percentage of books will be on the shelves.

As to the method of taking, it is never necessary to close the library. One department at a time should be done and one or two classes daily, depending on the size of the library. Two persons working together rather than one alone will do the work more quickly and easily, one, reading off the call numbers from the shelf list and the other looking up the books on the shelves. Before beginning be sure that the shelf list is in order. If the librarian has no one to help her, the assistance of some one, perhaps a high school girl, should be secured. Extra help for the few days ought to be secured for 75 cents to $1 per day. If the book is not upon the shelves, turn up the shelf card in its place, but do not remove from the tray. After the class is finished, go to the charging tray and look over the book cards for the class that is under inventory. The bulk of the books not on the shelves will be found here and the cards for them can be turned down in place. Make duplicate entries on cards or slips for the remainder, giving call number, accession number, author and title. Mark the original shelf card in pencil, *missing,* with the date, but *never* remove it from the shelf list. If a copy or volume is missing, indicate this directly following its individual entry.

A number of places in which to look for missing books will still remain. Examine the charges against the teachers' cards, the list of books at the bindery, or on the bindery shelf, waiting to be sent; look on the mending table or shelves, in the work room, or wherever books might be laid aside for repairs or to be discarded; look on the shelves again, as the books might be put back without your knowledge. Some will turn up as

other classes are inventories. Small books sometimes slip down behind the shelves and will come to light as the books and shelves are dusted. Be a detective and search all corners of the library.

Do not stop looking for missing books, as keeping the titles in mind will often bring them to light. Arrange the duplicate slips by call numbers and once or twice a week for several months make a systematic search for the books. Keep a list of the missing books at the delivery desk. In every way try to reduce the number of missing books, but do not tell patrons books are missing. Some losses, due to the open shelves, are unavoidable. Quite often at a busy time patrons may pick up a book and walk off with it, believing that it has been charged. In such a case there will be no record at the library, but the books will in all certainty be returned. Few books are actually taken by theft. Nevertheless the librarian should know whether books are disappearing in an unaccountable way. If a much used book is missing, replace it, after waiting a reasonable time for it to reappear. But to talk of losses, might give the impression that we were careless and lacking in proper care of our books. Neither is it wise to put this suggestion of book thefts into people's minds. After several months remove the catalogue cards for the missing books, unless the books have been replaced, but wait a year, until the next inventory, before making the withdrawal records for them. There is a good chance that the majority will reappear or be accounted for during the year.

What has been the practical result of this inventory-taking?

From the technical side, we have checked up our records. Discrepancies that may have arisen between shelflist and labels have been discovered and rectified. We can render an exact account of the books in our library. But more than this, books need an annual examination and we shall find that we have increased our knowledge of the resources of the library. Some books we shall find need mending or rebinding, others we may find have not been taken from their shelves in the year just past. The question will present itself—"Can these books be made of use? Is it our fault that they have not been used? Or has this material become obsolete and useless?" We must not forget that it costs in time and money to give shelf room to dead material, and that the whole tone of the library may be lowered by its presence. The inventory should be made a

real taking of stock. As the merchant or housekeeper discards out of date or worthless goods, in the same manner we, as librarians, should carefully weed out our collections, and endeavor to impart a freshened appearance to our library shelves.

These remarks have been chiefly of the inventory of books. An inventory of supplies and equipment is equally desirable and in some libraries required. We need to know what stock we have on hand, where obtained and its cost. We are frequently asked regarding the cost of our equipment, such as desks, tables or chairs. As this article was being prepared the following item appeared in a Madison paper and the local librarian has been notified that the rule is applicable to the public library.

Inventory of City Property is Asked

Notice has been sent to the heads of all city departments by City Clerk Norsman asking that an inventory of all articles belonging to the city be made. The report will be filed with the city clerk and the articles will be classified under their proper heads by the clerk. The department heads were directed to make such an inventory each year on May 1.

Numerical Errors in Records

Librarians can not use too much care in avoiding numerical errors in records. A few words of caution seem necessary. In the accession and withdrawal books and the borrowers' register most libraries in the state are using the half numbered books, which necessitate the addition of the hundreds and thousands. In this lies the possible chance for mistakes, for example, after writing 1199, in several instance 2000 has been put instead of 1200 and a block of 801 numbers has thereby been skipped. It is recommended that numbers be entered on each page throughout the book before beginning to use it. This may be done in ink for every ten numbers, or, far better, a self numberer may be used. Usually a numbering machine of this kind can be borrowed from the City hall or some bank in town. The Democrat printing company will upon request number books with a shelf number for 40c per 1000 numbers. The time and trouble saved by having the books thus numbered will repay the extra cost. Librarians must state the number with which they wish the book to begin, 1, 1001, 5001, or 10,001 as the case may be. Care should also be taken to date each page of accession books, etc., as this information is frequently needed.

Methods of Filing Monthly Bills

Each bill may be enclosed in a jacket, which bears the voucher number, date, name of the firm, amount of the bill, and purpose for which it has been incurred. The form of heading on each jacket corresponds to some heading on the disbursement side of the budget sheet. This jacket may be in the form of an envelope, into which the bill is slipped, or be simply folded around the bill. In case several bills are received from the same firm within the month, all may be included in one jacket. Places for the signatures of president and secretary of the board of trustees and of librarian are usually provided. In some libraries the receipt is made upon the bill jacket.

In regard to filing of bills the laws of Wisconsin provide thus: "The librarian shall be custodian of all vouchers, bills and other financial records pertaining to the library." The bill jackets should be filed alphabetically by name of firms. A bill file for the storage of the jackets in this order is recommended.

On Spending all the Yearly Appropriation

a. No library in the country has ever had all the money it needed for its work, for books for equipment, to say nothing of service and salaries. A board of trustees that does not spend every dollar of the annual appropriation is not giving the public the service that it has the right to expect from the public library, and that it has evinced itself willing to pay for.

b. It is the rule of most municipalities that all funds not expended within the year must revert to the general fund, so the library loses on this plan of saving, as funds are not often allowed to accumulate for any city department to use at a subsequent time.

c. It is not good policy to ask for more than can be used, as it does not show good business judgment, and does not inspire confidence in future requests.

d. If it is seen that the library has gotten along on a smaller sum, the tendency will be to reduce the appropriation, and it will be difficult to have it enlarged again.

BOOKBINDING

Those who work among books find it worth while to become familiar with their physical features—their binding, paper, type, illustrations and other parts. To learn about these things pays, for several reasons. First, because knowledge of them adds to the sum of one's bookish interests and makes one's daily task more attractive; next, because much of the knowledge one may acquire about them is of actual use in daily work, helping one to judge of book values, to mend wisely, to order with discrimination, and to handle books with good judgment; next, because it becomes a workman to know his trade, and knowledge of the material side of books is certainly part of the requirements proper to a librarian; next, again, because in learning about the physical features of a book one not only gets useful information on several trades which are part of the broader trade of bookmaking, but acquires also that habit of criticism, estimating, or appreciation which leads to the development of good taste and to an interest in objects of art.—John Cotton Dana.

BINDING AND PRESERVATION OF BOOKS

Another extract from that compendium of library economy published by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876. This was contributed by Ainsworth Rand Spofford, librarian of Congress. Points considered include materials, with a description of the leathers commonly used, workmanship, the mounting of maps and plates, and the treatment of pamphlets. A biographical sketch of Mr. Spofford will be found in Volume IV of this series.

Next to the selection and utilization of books, there is no subject more important in the administration of a public library than the binding and preservation of the volumes. Carelessness or neglect of the work in these points will subject any collection of books to danger and deterioration which may end in the loss of many volumes. However large or small a library may be, it should be a part of the duty of its custodian to go carefully through the collection an frequent intervals, take out the books needing repairs or rebinding, and to see to it that none is damaged beyond recovery before the proper remedy is applied.

Coincident with this duty should be the careful examination of each book returned from the hands of readers before it is replaced upon the shelves. Many libraries are filled with imperfect books, from which plates or leaves are missing, having fallen out by the wear and tear of the volumes, and carelessness or some worse abuse on the part of readers. This mischief should, of course, be watched and arrested at the threshold, and no library should be made the victim of the joint carelessness of its officers and the public. No rules for the collection of fines or the replacement of damaged books are of any value unless regularly and systemmatically enforced; and this can be done only by a cursory examination, at least, of each volume as it is returned from the hands of the reader.

Equally essential is it to good library management that every book acquired by purchase or otherwise be carefully collated before being catalogued or placed upon the shelves. Missing signatures, misplaced leaves, or abstracted plates and maps are of extremely common occurrence in any lot of books purchased or newly received from whatever quarter. Such imperfections can be detected only by a thorough collation, page by page. In the case of recent publications wanting in leaves or illustrations, the publishers are bound to supply the imperfection free of charge. In the case of books which are out of print, it is usually impracticable to repair imperfections; and, in such cases, the book should be returned to the seller, and another copy procured; unless in special cases the work is a rare one, and the imperfection of small consequence in comparison with the cost and the importance of the book to the library. A successful and economical repair of such deficiencies, of course, depends upon the promptitude with which reclamations are made; and without prompt and thorough attention to this matter, making it a rule to collate every volume on receipt, a library runs the risk of becoming filled with imperfect books, which may become quite as annoying to readers as the total absence of the volumes themselves.

While this is no place for a treatise on the history or the art of bookbinding, a few practical suggestions on the best methods of utilizing this art for the preservation of library collections seem to be appropriate. And, first, as to the material to be employed in covering books. The combined experience of librarians establishes the fact that leather binding only can be depended on for any use but the most ephemeral. All books bound in boards or cloth inevitably come to pieces after a few readings. While reasons of economy may dictate the propriety of leaving some books of reference, and the mass of volumes in any department which are but little read, in their original cloth binding, it is necessary to provide all the books which are really much used with a more solid and permanent covering. In doing this, the problem is how to combine durability and elegance with economy in expenditure. It is a false economy to employ cheap binders, who will always slight their work in order to underbid competition. To save a few cents on a volume, librarians will sometimes hazard the much greater cost of having books rebound a second time; and each rebinding seriously deteriorates every volume which is subjected to the process. The cheapest binding is that which is done to last, and the most

expensive that which the soonest comes to pieces in the hands of the reader. An inexpert librarian who accepts the lowest bid for rebinding a lot of books is served with inferior leather, the thinnest spongy boards instead of solid tar, cheap sewing-thread, inferior glue, imitation gold-leaf, and other devices resorted to by every mechanic who has to make a cheap job pay. Nowhere are the effects of the reign of shoddy, which infests every art and manufacture, more lamentable than in the book-binders' art. The sacrifice of all comeliness, solidity, and taste in binding is less injurious than the increased expense entailed by imperfect work. A book which comes from the binder in a half-pressed, spongy, and speedily-warping condition, with rough corners, irregular trimmings, wrinkles, imperfectly-secured plates, half-sewn or starting leaves, and similar imperfections, is on the high road to destruction, if not effectually ruined by the process it has undergone. On the other hand, a book which has been correctly treated will have a solid and even shape and feeling, with the leather of the corners smoothly pared, the back firm and well rounded, the head evenly trimmed, the leaves opening freely and uniformly in all parts, and the lettering on the back clear and straight. To pay 25 per cent. additional, or even more, for such binding, and be assured of thorough and conscientious work, from the cardinal point of the sewing of the volumes to the last touch of the finisher, is wise economy in the end.

While nearly all books published on the continent of Europe are issued to the public in paper or printed covers, in England and America they are almost universally published in muslin bindings, the English style being uncut as to margins, while in this country the book is usually trimmed all around before the cloth binding is put on. The muslin covers being made in part by machinery, and all in one piece, are attached to the book only by a narrow guard of paper or cloth, liable to tear away at the first severe handling. Books bound in leather, on the other hand, being first carefully sewed and backed to secure the tenacity of the leaves, are firmly laced to the boards which form the cover by the twine or cords to which the leaves are sewn. The leather being then placed over all, if of the proper texture and durable quality, will insure the preservation of each properly-bound book for centuries, even with frequent, if reasonably careful, use or reference.

The quality of the leather used in binding is of cardinal importance. What passes under the name of morocco leather

is commonly only colored sheepskin, soft, and easily worn out, with a tendency to become rough and lose its artificial coloring on being handled. Genuine Levant morocco is expensive, but it is the only leather likely to give permanent satisfaction on books which are to be continually handled. Calfskin, which is very largely used in book binding, although it has the merit of a smooth and elegant appearance, is open to fatal objections. The leather is brittle and always breaks at the joints, the question of its deterioration being only one of time. In most libraries the books bound in calf or half-calf are continually being sent to the binder for repairs. The heavier volumes bound in this material frequently break by their own weight in standing on the shelves, while those subject to frequent opening break all the sooner. Moreover, calf bindings, especially light calf, are much more easily stained or soiled than any others, while the smoothness of the leather renders them peculiarly liable to scratches, thus quickly ruining the primitive elegance of their appearance. For these reasons it is bad economy to bind any book in calf for a public library, however, it may be with private ones. Russia leather, although stronger than calf, has the same liability to break at the joints, while the idea that its peculiar odor affords any protection against worms, is a delusion. Perhaps nothing need be said of "leatherette," or other shoddy substitutes for leather and cloth, which have recently come in vogue among the votaries of cheap binding. They are, one and all, made of paper, and are stiff, brittle, and sure of breaking at the joints even more quickly than calf, so that the use of them for a public library would be a most costly economy.

As to the color chosen for bindings, it has been found that all morocco leathers, green, blue, maroon, etc., turn a dingy black after a few decades. The only permanently fast color for leather is said to be red, the dye being made from the cochineal insect. The objection that the binding in red is too gaudy or showy for the shelves of a public library may be answered by the statement that the mass of every large collection, being composed of the older literature, will always be of calf or other dark-colored bindings. The majority of the more recent books, also, or the literature of the current century, which are kept in their original bindings, are in dark-colored muslin. If the books which come to be rebound, and the new acquisitions re

requiring it, are all bound in red morocco, therefore, and distributed, as they will naturally be, with the related books in each department of the library, they will serve to light up and relieve agreeably the otherwise too sombre appearance of the collection. Of course the exceptions may be numerous to binding uniformly in this color; and works in theology, science, etc., may very properly be dressed in black morocco, which will not turn any dingier than its native color in the progress of time. No arbitrary rule should be laid down, though it may be noted that the authorities of the British Museum Library have adopted a classification of colors, by which historical books are bound in red, theological in blue, poetical in yellow, books of natural history in green, etc. As nearly all libraries are lighted by gas, the chemical effects of which are very injurious to books, it may be added that calf and Russia-leather suffer most from the products of gas combustion, and morocco least of all.

Comparatively few books need be bound in full leather, even in a library largely used, though all books of incessant reference, like the more popular encyclopædias and dictionaries, should be fully bound in the strongest and most durable leather. The mass of books, if bound in genuine half-morocco, with cloth sides, will stand well a prolonged use. Those less frequently used may safely have marbled paper sides, but leather corners should be insisted upon for all but the thinnest volumes.

The binder should not be permitted to cut any book closely. A simple shaving taken off the head to render the leaves smooth for handling, leaving the other margins uncut, is the best treatment. The prime requisites of good binding are durability and neatness, and to these both ornament and false economy should be sacrificed. Gilding is quite unnecessary in the books of a public library, except for the mere lettering, or titles. Morocco looks well with what is termed blind-tooling, or blank finish, and the money spent in extra stamps, fillets, or embossing would be better applied in securing thorough sewing and "forwarding," or fastening in the leather covers. This branch of the bookbinder's art furnishes the true test of durable work. Too much hurry in binding books is a waste, as no book can be well bound unless it is given ample time to dry and press thoroughly after each process Freshly-bound books should be reserved from use for at least three weeks, and firmly pressed on shelves till they are so dry as not to warp upon exposure. All maps and

plans in books should be mounted on cambric, or other thin cloth. The plates in large volumes should be secured by being mounted on guards, and such volumes should be kept in drawers or on sliding shelves, as if placed upright they suffer inevitable injury. The mounting of maps on paper, and patching with cloth at the folds, are ruinous expedients. Folding maps and plates are invariably torn and ruined if not thoroughly protected. In binding periodicals, the covers should be carefully preserved and bound at the end of each volume; thus preserving what is frequently valuable historical material, and supplying the means of fixing the date, price, etc., of each number. All half-titles, known as "bastard titles," should be preserved and bound in, while prospectuses of other publications or miscellaneous advertising sheets may be rejected, in binding any book, as extraneous matter. Old books in original binding should be restored rather than rebound, preserving as far as possible the characteristic features of the primitive binding. For the same reason, annotations and autographs should generally be preserved, as they frequently elucidate the history or contents of the volume, or identify it with a former possessor.

Every librarian should give special personal attention to the lettering of books. Binders are rarely qualified to discriminate the proper titles to be placed on a book, especially those in foreign languages, and the time and money expended on full, accurate, and well arranged lettering will save much time and trouble in after use to readers and librarians alike. The date and place of publication should in all cases be the last lettering on the back, and collective works should have some indication of the contents of each volume of the set supplied in its lettering.

The binding of pamphlets is a mooted point in all libraries. While the British Museum and the Library of Congress treat the pamphlet as a book, binding all separate, this is deemed in some quarters too vexatious and troublesome, as well as needlessly expensive. It must be considered, however, that the crowding of a heterogeneous collection of pamphlets into a single cover is just as objectionable as binding together books on unrelated subjects. Much time is consumed in finding the pamphlet wanted among a dozen or more that precede or follow it, and, if valuable or much sought for pamphlets are thus bound, many readers may be kept waiting for some of them, while one reader engrosses the volume containing all. The loss

of one, moreover, entails the loss of all bound with it; whereas if kept separate the loss would have been reduced to a minimum. Pamphlets may be lightly bound in pasteboard, stitched, with cloth backs, at a cost varying from 8 to 12 cents each;[1] and the compensating advantage of being able to classify them like books upon the shelves should weigh in the decision of the question. If many are bound together, they should invariably be assorted into classes, and those only on the same general topic should be embraced in the same cover. The reports of societies and institutions, annual catalogues, etc., should be bound in chronological series, with five to ten years in a volume, according to thickness. Libraries which accumulate many bound volumes of pamphlets should divide them into series, and number them throughout with strict reference to the catalogue. There will thus be accumulated a constantly increasing series of theological, political, agricultural, medical, scientific, etc., pamphlets, while the mass, which cannot be thus classified, may be designated in a consecutive series of volumes as Miscellaneous Pamphlets. When catalogued, the title page or beginning of each pamphlet in the volume should be marked by a thin strip of unsized paper projected above the top of the book, to facilitate future reference. In all cases the contents of each volume of pamphlets should be briefed in numerical order upon the first fly-leaf of the volume, and its corresponding number written on the title page of each pamphlet.

Readers should never be permitted the vulgar and deleterious practice of folding down the corners of leaves—*i. e.*, making "dog's-ears"—or of wetting the fingers in turning over the pages of a book. All writing upon margins should be visited with the penalty of exclusion from library privileges. Under no circumstances should a book be left open, face downward. Never crowd books too closely upon the shelves. There should always be room for every volume to slip easily past its neighbors. Turning books downward upon the fore-edge is another injurious practice, which deteriorates the solidity of the binding. When uncut books must be brought into use in a library, they should always be prepared for the readers by the paper-knife, as otherwise the leaves will be subject to the hazard of being torn and gouged by impatient fingers past all remedy, except the barbarous expedient of cutting off all the margins when the book is bound.

[1] This cost, however, will hardly include lettering.

COVERING BOOKS

The covering of books was a common practice in the early history of libraries. In his "Public Libraries in America," (1894) William I. Fletcher says that books going into large circulation especially in manufacturing communities where they are likely to be much soiled ought to be covered with paper, which should be renewed as often as necessary to keep them looking tidy. He adds "It is not common now, as it was formerly, to cover *all* library books."

The extract below is taken from the chapter by William F. Poole on "The Organization and Management of Public Libraries" which appeared in the special report published by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876.

A biographical sketch of Mr. Poole appears in Volume I of this series.

The question will arise whether the books should be covered with paper. This has been a general practice, and, though, still kept up in some of the older libraries, is becoming the exception rather than the rule. The practice of the writer is not to cover the books because the covering is expensive, troublesome, and quite as much an injury as a protection to a book. A book covered with paper is likely to need rebinding sooner than if it be not covered. It is the sewing and the bands which attach the book to the covers that first give way. Paper will protect the covers, but these, even if they be only of muslin, will outlive the sewing and the bands. If a book be covered with paper on a damp day, the paper shrinks on a dry day and strains the binding at the bands. Books are covered that they may be cleaner and more presentable; but paper takes dirt more readily than muslin, and when a volume has been out once or twice its condition is anything but presentable. Books covered with paper may be bound with less finishing and with-

out lettering. The expense thus saved is more than offset by the cost of continual re-covering. Books lose the individuality by being covered; and cases of books, with simply shelf marks and no titles, are unserviceable for the purpose of reference, as well as unsightly.

BINDING FOR A PUBLIC LIBRARY

Problems briefly stated and answered by John Cotton Dana, who says that one might know much of the history of binding, and still be very poorly equipped to look after the binding in a public library. A biographical sketch of Mr. Dana appears in Volume II of this series.

Recent investigations into the subject of leather indicate that none of it, not even the best, can be depended on to last for many years even under fairly favorable conditions. The trouble comes not from heat, or gas, or both, as was formerly often supposed. Leather has within itself that which leads to its own destruction. Modern book-cloths, some of them, look well, stand handling well, and perhaps will not rot with time. The safest thing seems to be good honest cloth with a minimum of filling of any sort. All this is important; so also are the topics of thread, strings, tape, sewing; super loose and tight backs; joints, end-papers, headbands, protected corners, lettering, etc. But knowledge of all these is not sufficient to the wise management of the binding of a public library. The binding in such a library is chiefly—probably often more than 75 per cent—that of recent popular books, largely novels. The judicious binding of these books—this is the important thing. Expensive books and files of periodicals for reference use, these can be entrusted to a good binder straightway, with a few suggestions as to style, material to be used, lettering, etc.

The question of the popular book presents itself somewhat like this: The book is soiled outside, fairly clean within; the cover has parted from the leaves in front; several leaves are loose and two of them are frayed at the edges; at the back several of the outside folds are worn through, and the label is off. Here are some of the questions: Is this the only copy in the library? If not shall we rebind it, or has its vogue passed and can we better afford to throw it away than to put money into it that it may stand idle on the shelf? If it is still some-

what popular, is it a novel we care to encourage the use of? Was it bought in the day of its youth, before its demerits were discovered, and can we now—in view of the purchase of other later books at least as good—venture to put the money its binding would cost into a better book? Or, it is absolutely of the past, and though harmless, quite useless save historically considered, and, thus considered, will it ever be wanted in this library? If not, shall we put more time and money on it, even to the extent of giving it care and shelf-room, or let it go? Is it a passably good book, but now out of print and therefore expensive of time to replace, and when replaced very rarely called for? If so, shall we put it again on the shelf, or let it go and strike it once for all from our list?

If it is a pretty book and in constant demand how shall we treat it? If a new copy can be got for 24 cents shall we pay 22 cents to rebind this one? Is rebinding, clerically considered, as cheap as buying and shelving a new copy? Will this copy last, after rebinding, as long as would a new copy of the same edition? If it is to be rebound, shall it go to the bindery now or wear a little longer as it is, or be mended a little first? Will mending and further wear injure its wearing qualities after it is finally rebound? If there are other editions does this sample indicate that this particular edition is the most economical one to buy hereafter, etc.?

These are a few of the questions the binding expert may be expected to be able to answer, and to answer quickly. To answer them calls for a knowledge of paper, type, and binding generally; of authors, publishers, editions, and prices; of popular books and books passé; the present demand in the particular library in question, and of that library's policy as to book selection.

One might know much of the history of binding, of Grolier, Chivers and Mr. Super of Allalong, and still be very poorly equipped to look after the binding in a public library.

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